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A

VIEW OF SPAIN;

COMPRISING

A DESCRIPTIVE ITINERARY,

OF

EACH PROVINCE,

AND A

GENERAL STATISTICAL ACCOUNT OF THE COUNTRY;

INCLUDING

ITS POPULATION, AGRICULTURE, MANUFACTURES, COMMERCE, AND FINANCES;
ITS GOVERNMENT, CIVIL, AND ECCLESIASTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS;
THE STATE OF THE ARTS, SCIENCES, AND LITERATURE;
ITS MANNERS, CUSTOMS, NATURAL HISTORY, &c.

TRANSLATED FROM THE FRENCH OF

ALEXANDER DE LABORDE.

IN FIVE VOLUMES.

VOL. I.

LONDON:

PRINTED FOR LONGMAN, HURST, REES, AND ORME, PATER-NOSTER-ROW; AND R. DULAU AND CO. SOHO SQUARE.

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ADVERTISEMENT.

M. ALEXANDER DE LABORDE, the author of the following work, is well known as an elegant scholar, and erudite antiquary, possessed of a highly cultivated taste, and extensive information on all literary and philosophical subjects.

For a publication of the nature of the present he was in many respects eminently qualified, as well from his intimate acquaintance with most of the subjects it would necessarily embrace, as from his love of travel, and previous habits of observation and research; but for a work on the interesting country which he has here chosen for his subject, he possessed many peculiar and exclusive advantages of great value. He was himself personally known to several Spanish families of rank and influence, and, through their means, had every desirable facility for obtaining introductions to such persons as could be thought capable of aiding him in his pursuits, and access to every object of curiosity, and every source of information, worthy the attention of the intelligent and philosophical traveller. Of these advantages he appears as much as possible to have availed himself. His "Voyage Pittoresque de l'Espagne," one of the most splendid works that has ever appeared, and the present publication, evince how deserving he was of every patronage and assistance he received. Few men, indeed, could have profited by them to the same extent. To travel as our author has done, and explore with so much minuteness, a country so extensive, so abundant in objects to arrest the attention of the tourist, and withal so destitute of the requisite accommodations for journeying from place to

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place, could not be effected but at an expense which few have either the ability or the disposition to meet. It is supposed, and our information is derived from the most respectable authority, that our author's travels in Spain, including the various expences incurred with a view to his two works on that country, have not cost him less, upon a moderate calculation, than twenty thousand pounds sterling.

The "Itineraire Descfiptif de l'Espagne," &c. of which these volumes are a translation, has experienced a most favourable reception in France, having in a short period passed through several editions. To this success the immediate interest of the subject could not indeed fail to contribute: but the work itself possesses great intrinsic merit, and may perhaps be considered as the most complete account we possess of any country in the world.

In the translation few liberties have been taken with the original text: some compliments to the reigning family of France, and particularly to Joseph Buonaparte, in our author's estimation the destined, if not the reigning, monarch of Spain, have been omitted, as too fulsome for an English ear; the chapter on the language of the country, wherein the author entered into an elaborate comparison of the Spanish with the French tongues, has been retrenched in such particulars as appeared of no value or interest to the English reader; the chapter on Natural History in the fifth volume has received some necessary corrections in the scientific classification of the subjects; in other respects it remains in its original state. All that it is deemed necessary to remark farther is, that a few short notes have been occasionally introduced, particularly in the fourth volume, where the text appeared to require illustration.

ENGLISH EDITOR.

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H. L. H.

CONTENTS

OF THE

FIRST VOLUME.

	Page
INTRODUCTION	i
Observations on travelling in general, and on travelling in Spain in particular	cxxviii
Manner of travelling in Spain	cxxxiv
Natural geography of Spain	clviii
Observations on the face of the country and on the climate of Spain	clix
Historical geography of Spain	clxxiv
Chronological table of the king's of Spain	clxxvi
Division of Spain	clxxviii

CATALONIA.

Road from Perpignan to the frontiers of Spain	1
Observations on Catalonia	2
Road from Col-de-Pertus to Gironna	9
—— from Gironna to Barcelona	18
—— by the Sea-side	19
BARCELONA.	27
Excursions from Barcelona	63
Environs of that town	67

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CONTENTS.

Page

Road from Barcelona to the frontiers of the kingdom of Aragon 69
—— from the Frontiers of the kingdom of Valencia to Tarragona 85
—— from Tarragona to Barcelona . . . . . ib.
Statistical Abstract relative to Catalonia 104
View of the Natural History of Catalonia 123
Character, manners, customs, &c. of the Catalans . . 129

VALENCIA.

General observations on the kingdom 136
Road from the frontiers of the New Castile to Valencia 140
—— from the frontiers of the kingdom of Murcia to Valencia 143
—— from the same frontiers near Almanza to Valencia 167
Valencia 175
Excursions in the environs of Valencia 251
Road from Valencia to Segorbe 257
—— to San-Felipe 266
—— 2d to the same . . . . . ib.
—— 3d to the same . . . . . ib.
Road from Valencia to the frontiers of Catalonia . . 271
Statistical abstract relative to the kingdom of Valencia 293
Table of the productions of the kingdom 306
Commercial Tables 314

ESTREMADURA.

General observations on this province 337
Road from the frontiers of New Castile to the frontiers of Portugal 339
Truxillo 343
Merida 349
Road from Merida to Badajoz 353
—— 2d to the same 355
Badajoz 356

Digitized by Google

Page

Road from Almaraz to Talavera-la-Vieja . . . 359
—— from Almaraz to Plasencia, Coria, Alcantara, and Caceres, and thence to Merida 361
Plasencia 363
Coria 369
Alcantara 371
Caceres 374
Cross-road from Caceres to Merida 375
Statistical abstract relative to Estremadura . . . ib.
Manufactures and commerce 379
Roads, carriage, and inns 380
Natural History 381
Arts and Sciences 383
Character, Manners, &c. 384

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ALPHABETICAL TABLE

OF THE ROADS DESCRIBED IN

THE ITINERARY OF SPAIN;

Contained in the 1st, 2d, and 3d Volumes.

Page

ALAVA (from the frontiers of) to Burgos, Valladolid, and the frontiers of New Castile on the port of Guadarrama, 61 leagues. III. 10

Albacete (from) to the frontiers of the kingdom of Valencia, 14 leagues. (Pl. 15.) II. 209

Almaraz (from) to Plasencia, Coria, Alcantara, and Caceres, from thence to Merida, 57 leagues. (Pl 25.) I. 361

Aranjuez (from) to Requina and the frontiers of Valencia, 42 leagues. (Pl. 5 & 13.) III. 176

N. B. The ancient road can only be travelled on horseback.

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Page

Aragon (from the frontiers of) by Daroca and Urzes to Madrid, 35 leagues and a quarter. (Pl. 5, 10 & 11.) III. 67

N. B. Road from the frontiers of France through Perpignan, Barcelona, and Saragossa to Madrid.

Aragon (from the frontiers of) by Calatayud and Sisamon to Madrid, 31 leagues. (Pl. 5, 10 & 11.) III. 69

N. B. Road from the frontiers of France by Perpignan, Barcelona, and Saragossa to Madrid.

Astorga (from), in the kingdom of Leon, to Lugo in Galicia, and St. Jago or St. James of Compostella, 49 leagues. (Pl. 26 & 27.) II. 427

Astorga (from) to Zamora and Toro by Benevente, 28 leagues. II. 484

BARCELONA (from) to the frontiers of the kingdom of Aragon, 34 leagues and a quarter. (Pl. 8.) I. 69

Bedazoa (from) to St. Sebastian, Bilbao, and Orduna, 25 leagues. II. 347

CADIZ (from) to the frontiers of the kingdom of Granada, 19 leagues. (Pl. 21.) II. 83

N. B. Road from Cadiz and Xered de la Frontera to Ronda and Malaga.

Carmona (from) to Cadiz, 26 leagues. (Pl. 23.) II. 62

Catalonia (from the frontiers of) to Saragossa, 22 leagues. (Pl. 9.) II. 245

N. B. See the road through Perpignan and Barcelona to Saragossa and Madrid.

Ceuta, Spanish possessions on the coast of Africa (from) to Penon de Velez, Penon de Alhuzemas, Marzalquivir, and Oran. III. 403

Digitized by Google

Page

Col de Pertus (from) the frontier of France, to Gironna, 11 leagues. (Pl. 6.) I. ---------- 9
N. B. This road leads from Perpignan to Barcelona, Saragossa, Valencia, and Madrid.
Cordova (from) to Seville, 21 leagues. (Pl. 20.) II. ---- 38
Corunna and Ferrol (from the coast of) to Biscay and the Asturias. II. ---------- 453
Corunna (from) to Ferrol, 9 leagues. (Pl. 26.) II. ---- 438

ECIJA (from) to the frontiers of the kingdom of Granada, 6 leagues. (Pl. 20.) II. ---------- 85
Estremadura Spanish, and the kingdom of Leon (from the frontiers of) to Salamanca, 19 leagues. II.---- 488
Estremadura (from) to Cordova, by the Sierra Morena, 84 leagues. II.---------- 1

FRANCE (from the frontiers of), by Bayonne, to Pampeluna, 7 leagues. II ---------- 316
N. B. The distance from Bayonne to Pampeluna is reckoned at 17 geographical leagues.
France (from the frontiers of) over the mountain of Atienza to Madrid, 19 leagues and three quarters. III. ---------- 66
France (from the frontiers of) by Bayonne, to St. Sebastian, Bilbao, and Orduna. II. ---------- 346
France (from the frontiers of) from Bayonne to the frontiers of Old Castile, by Guipuzcoa and Alava, 22 leagues and a half. II. ---------- 360
N. B. The road from the frontiers of France to Burgos, Valladolid, and Madrid.

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Page

GIRONNA (from) to Barcelona, through the interior, 16 leagues. (Pl. 6.) I. 18

N. B. First road. This is the road for the post and muleteers.

Second road. By the sea-side road 17 leagues and a quarter. I. 19

Granja and St. Ildefonso (from) to Segovia, and further on to Cuella and Tudela, 19 leagues and a half. III. 33

LEON (from) to Astorga, 7 leagues. (Pl. 28.) II. 478

Leon (from the frontier of the kingdom of) to Oviedo, 13 leagues. (Pl. 28.) II. 405

Llerena (from) to Seville, 17 leagues. (Pl. 23.) II. 2

Lugo (from) to Mondonedo, 9 leagues. (Pl. 26.) II. 451

Lugo to Corunna, 14 leagues. (Pl. 26.) II. 433

MADRID (from) to Requena and the frontiers of the kingdom of Valencia, 44 leagues. (Pl. 5 & 13.) III. 176

N. B. Old Post-road from Madrid to Valencia, it can only be travelled an horseback.

Madrid (from) to Requena and the frontiers of the kingdom of Valencia, passing through Cuença in the Sierra of that name, 55 leagues. III. 184

Madrid (from) to the frontiers of Estremadura, 27 leagues. (Pl. 5 & 25.) III. 204

N. B. Road from Madrid to Portugal through Estremadura.

Madrid (from) to Toledo, 12 leagues. (Pl. 5.) III. 173

Madrid (from) to Aranjuez, and the frontiers of La Mancha, 9 leagues. (Pl. 5.) III. 168

N. B. The road from Madrid to Murcia, Carthagena, and Valencia.

Madrid (from) to the Escurial and San Lorenzo, 7 leagues. (Pl. 5.) III. 143

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Page

Mahon, *island of Minorca*, (from) to Cuidadella. (Pl. 29.) III. ---- 453

Malaga (from) to Gibraltar by the sea coast, 20 leagues. (Pl. 21.) III. ---- 364

Mancha (from the frontiers of) to Cordova, 12 leagues. (Pl. 20.) II. ---- 22

Mancha (from the frontiers of) to Murcia, 25 leagues. (Pl. 16.) II. ---- 158

N. B. The road from Madrid and Aranjuez to Murcia and Carthagena.

Medina del Rio Seco (from) to Tordesellas, 7 leagues. II. ---- 481

Merida (from) to Badajoz, by La Puebla de la Calzada, 9 leagues. (Pl. 24.) I. ---- 353

Merida (from) to Badajoz, by Lobon, 9 leagues. (Pl. 24.) I. ---- 353

Murcia (from) to the frontiers of the kingdom of Valencia, 3 leagues. (Pl. 16.) II. ---- 206

Murcia (from) to Lorca, 13 leagues. (Pl. 16.) II. ---- 192

Murcia (from the frontiers of) above Orihuela to Valencia, 32 leagues and a half. (Pl. 14 & 16.) I. ---- 143

Murcia (from the frontiers of the kingdom of) near Almanza to Valencia, 15 leagues and three quarters. (Pl. 14.) I. ---- 167

N. B. The road from Madrid and Aranjuez to Valencia.

NAVARRE (from the frontiers of) below Valtierra, to those of New Castile on Mount Atienza, 23 leagues and a half. III. ---- 7

New Castile (from the frontiers of) through Aranjuez and Ocana to the Sierra Morena, the frontiers of Andalusia, 27 leagues. (Pl. 18 & 19.) III. ---- 341

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Page

New Castile (from the frontiers of) above Aranjuez to the frontiers of Murcia, 23 leagues. (Pl. 15.) III.. 327

New Castile (from the frontiers of) to Valencia, 7 leagues. (Pl. 13.) I. 140

New Castile (from the frontiers of) through Talavera de la Reyna, to the frontiers of Portugal, 38 leagues and three quarters. (Pl. 25.) I. 339

OLD Castile (from the frontiers of) on the Puerto de Guadarrama to Madrid, 9 leagues. (Pl. 5.) III. .. 65

NOTE.—Road from the Frontiers of France, by Bayonne, Burgos, and Valladolid to Madrid.

Orense (from) to Requejo, frontier of the kingdoms of Galicia and Leon, 24 leagues. (Pl. 27.) II. 450

Oviedo (from) to Santillana, through Onis, La Fuente de Nansa, and Cabezon. II. 413

Oviedo (from) to Aviles, 4 leagues. (Pl. 28.) II. 410

Oviedo (from) to Gijon, 4 leagues. II. 409

PALENCIA (from) to Leon. (Pl. 28.) II. 468

Palencia (from) to Medina del Rio Seco, 8 leagues. II. 480

Palma, in the Isle of Majorca, (from) to Alcudia and Pollenza. (Pl. 29.) III. 424

Pampeluna (from) to St. Jean Pie de Port, capital of French Navarre, by Roncevaux, 18 leagues and a half. II. 321

Pampeluna (from) to the frontiers of Old Castile, 19 leagues. II. 323

Ponte Vedra (from) to Orense, 14 leagues. (Pl. 26.) II. 448

SALAMANCA (from) to Cuidad Rodrigo, 16 leagues. II. 504

Salamanca (from) to Medina del Rio Seco, 14 leagues. II. 502

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Page

Salamanca (from) to Avila, on the frontiers of New Castile, 21 leagues. II. 499
Sant Jago (from) to Corunna, 10 leagues. II. 438
Sant Jago (from) to Tuy, by Vigo, 17 leagues and a half. (Pl. 26.) II. 442
Saint Jago (from) to Orense, 14 leagues and a half. (Pl. 26.) II. 449
Saragossa (from to the frontiers of New Castile, by Daroca, 14 leagues. (Pl. 10.) II. 272
Saragossa (from) to the confines of New Castile, by Calatayud, 20 leagues and a half. (Pl. 10.) II. 276
Seville (from the frontiers of the kingdom of) below Grazalema, as far as Malaga, 14 leagues. (Pl. 21.) II. 85
Seville (from the frontiers of the kingdom of) below Alameda, as far as Granada, 10 leagues. (Pl. 20.) II. 83
Sierra Morena (first passage in the) 19 leagues. (Pl. 19.) II. 4
(Second passage) 12 leagues. (Pl. 19.) II. 8
Sierra Morena (from the) to Jaen, by Linares, 14 leagues and a half. (Pl. 19.) II. 112
Sierra Morena (from the) to the frontiers of La Mancha as far as Alcala Real and the limits of the kingdom of Granada. (Pl. 19.) II. 108
Sierra Morena (from the) as far as Jaen, by Anduxar, 9 leagues. (Pl. 19.) II. 111

TALAVERA de la Reyna (from) to Toledo, 11 leagues. (Pl. 5.) III. 242
Toledo (from) to Aranjuez, 7 leagues. (Pl. 5.) III. 279
Torre de Sillas (from) to Medina del Campo, 4 leagues. II. 483

Digitized by Google

Page

Tuy (from) to Orensé, 13 leagues. (Pl. 26.) II..... 447

VALENCIA (from) to San-Felipe, 9 leagues and a half. (Pl. 14.) I. 266

Valencia (from) to the frontiers of Catalonia, 21 leagues and three quarters. (Pl. 12.) I. 271

Valencia (from) to Liria, Xerica, and Segorbe, 21 leagues and a quarter. (Pl. 12.) I. 257

Valencia (from the frontiers of the kingdom of) to Tarragona, and from Tarragona to Barcelona, 34 leagues. (Pl. 7.) I. 85

Vigo (from) to Orensé, 14 leagues. (Pl. 26.) II..... 447

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INTRODUCTION.

IN the existence of nations, as in the life of men, there are certain events, which, as it were, bring their history to a point, and indicate the time for describing them. The historian, acquainted with their past and contemplating their present situation, may compare the latter with the former, and observe their relations and distinctions, without feeling himself called upon to dive into the unknown ocean of futurity.

Such is the present state of Spain, now terminating an important period of her history, and taking a new form. This noble country, which has always been governed by some foreign House, though

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never conquered by any, always swayed but never debased, seems to rise with greater vigour, and to derive fresh lustre from changes which usually cause the decline of empires. Fortunate would be the writer who was prepared at this moment to trace the events, which, through every period, have contributed their influence in the fate of this monarchy. We might hope to receive from him a history, not the stale one of its kings, but of its provinces, of their customs, of the progress of their industry, of their civilization; above all of their prosperity, that true, that important era in the annals of nations. He would not, like his predecessors, lose his time in detailing all the campaigns in the Milanese, from Charles V. to Maillebois. He would spare us those never-failing rebellions of the Low Countries against the princes of the house of Austria, those long sieges of small towns, those great battles of little armies, which generally led to negotiations, no less tiresome and insignificant.

Unconnected as these events are with

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Spain, they compose three-fourths of the works written on that country, while its philosophical and political history, perhaps the only important one, is the only one neglected. Though too much engaged to attempt this task myself, I hope that I have contributed to render the execution of it easier to those who may be inclined to undertake it, by communicating to them the enquiries I have been able to make, and the information I have obtained. All the materials I have collected I here present to the public in a form which appeared to me the most convenient for the different classes of readers, particularly for those whom a taste for travelling, or other motives, may induce to visit Spain. The three first volumes contain a *descriptive Itinerary*, and a statistical account of each province: the two last are devoted to a general view of the country in whatever relates to the different branches of the government and of political economy. These delineations are not digested with all the pains I might have taken with them, had I been less eager for their appearance;

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but I have preferred publishing them such as they are at a moment when they may be of the greatest utility, and throwing myself upon the indulgence of the public for the faults they contain. The work, indeed, is of that kind in which, perhaps, elegance is not so requisite in the style as accuracy is necessary in the facts; and in this, at least, it has been my strenuous endeavour to deserve no blame.

Spain, long neglected in our political interests, in our commercial views, and scarcely an object even of our curiosity, is becoming interesting in all these respects, and will completely fix our attention, when she makes a part of the same system, and adopts the same European habits, and when travelling is rendered less difficult: but to judge of what she may then be, we ought to know what she is at present, and what she was formerly. The social organization of Spain is still less known than her monuments, though her historians are more numerous than her travellers, and one is astonished to find the received opinions on her present state, and her situation in the

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different periods of history, contrary to real facts and authentic documents.

I had occasion, in another work on this country *, to scrutinize some historical traditions which did not appear to me founded on truth; I shall do the same in the following volumes, in all that relates to industry and government, whenever it appears to me that the public is misinformed. I am, nevertheless, sensible of the difficulty of combating ideas generally received; but these ideas are not so rooted in Spain, and as I am supported in my opinion by several enlightened men of that kingdom, I cannot but hope some indulgence from others.

It will, no doubt, appear strange to assert, that Spain was never more flourishing, better cultivated, or perhaps, more populous than at present:

That it has never experienced any decline, never having attained any eminent degree of prosperity:

That the splendour of the boasted reigns

* Picturesque Travels in Spain.

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of Ferdinand V., Charles V., and Philip II., were owing only to military glory and foreign politics, without the welfare of the country being a step advanced:

That the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, which are considered as the most brilliant ages of Spain, were less prosperous than the eighteenth, which constitutes a part of its supposed decline:

That the discovery of America was never injurious either to its population or industry, and that it is at present eminently advantageous to both:

That the inquisition, atrocious and sanguinary as it was in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, did not in those times prevent the increase of population, or the progress of knowledge, while its influence, which seemed to be null, has, for sixty years past, been prejudicial to every kind of improvement:

And lastly, that if Spain were governed by an enlightened prince, it would, from its present state in the two worlds, be able in a very short time to rise to the highest de-

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gree of wealth and splendour, and rival the great powers of Europe.

A brief examination of the state of this kingdom in its different revolutions will illustrate these assertions, and serve as a connecting chain to the different parts of this work.

The philosophical history of Spain may be divided into four great epochs*: the first under the Carthaginians and Romans, till the invasion of the northern nations; the second under the government of the Goths and Arabs till the reign of Charles V.; the third under the princes of the

* I have likewise divided the History of Spain relative to its monuments into four epochs, but in a different way: the first epocha comprehends the Romans and Goths together, the arts of the latter having been only the continuation and decline of those of the Romans; the second is confined to the Arabs; the third to the Gothic style in use among the Christians from the eleventh century, gradually introduced as the monarchy was forming anew; the fourth comprehends all the modern monuments from the revival of the arts under Ferdinand and Isabella to our days. *Voyage pittoresque d'Espagne, Vol. I. Introduction.*

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house of Austria; the fourth under those of the house of Bourbon.

In the first epocha, the Spaniards made part of the grand system which governed the world; but, rather allies than subjects of the Romans, becoming like them civilized, but not civilized by them; they equalled them in almost all useful knowledge, and were at once the prop and wealth of their empire. In the second epocha they began to compose an independent state, subject to new laws, and under sovereigns of their own nation: but, soon reduced by the conquests of the Moors to a small territory, they were obliged to form their monarchy anew, and the improvement of their laws, commerce, and agriculture, was necessarily slow. Divided into several kingdoms which had not even a federative head like other states of Europe, they long languished under an imperfect order of things, till at length the crowns of all the provinces united on the head of Ferdinand V., one of their most distinguished sovereigns. That monarch, no longer having enemies to combat at

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home, and desiring no conquests abroad, devoted his whole attention to the welfare of his subjects.

This period, regarded by historians as that of the splendour and felicity of Spain, was, however, only remarkable for a false gleam of prosperity, no sooner seen than vanished. Spain, escaping from the disastrous wars of Henry IV, Ferdinand's predecessor, was involved in still more disastrous ones which followed the reign of the latter monarch, in that of Charles V, his successor, and which blasted all hope of internal improvement.

This is our third epocha, during which the Spaniards dared to pretend to universal monarchy, for the transient glory of which they paid very dear. Torn from their families, and despatched to fight without reason against distant nations, or employed without any advantage in quelling rebellions, they were doomed to see the produce of their soil, the treasures of their colonies, and the flower of their population sent far from their native land. The feeble successors of Charles I. and Philip II.,

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persevering in the system of these monarchs without their talents, aggravated the calamities of the nation, and Spain, disheartened and distressed, wished the extent of her dominions diminished with as much reason as other countries covet an augmentation of theirs.

The fourth epocha begins in the 18th century, when the grandson of Louis XIV. took possession of the throne of Spain. At this juncture a general commotion took place in all the provinces of this empire, which proved favourable to each. It happens with political bodies as with the human body, when it sinks into a kind of stupor and relaxation; a spontaneous agitation brings it to itself by compelling it to make use of its strength: if this movement be not too violent, or too long, it will be followed by a developement of all the organs, a revival of all the faculties eminently favourable to ameliorations of every kind. Such was the effect produced by the change of dynasty among the Spaniards. They had been industrious under the Romans, warriors under the Goths,

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ambitious under the Austrian princes, and they found themselves, under Philip V., in that happy state of equanimity, in that age of wisdom as it were, which leads men to employ the experience of the past in improving the advantages of the future. Then it was that enriched by the loss of their distant provinces, they concentered their industry within the limits of their empire, and enjoyed a repose and welfare which they had never experienced in the most brilliant periods of their history. The manufactures of Flanders and the Milanese were soon established in Catalonia, Aragon, and the kingdom of Valencia; ports and arsenals multiplied along the coasts, and population rapidly increased: agriculture, relieved from some of its fetters, drew the attention of sensible men, and all the efforts previously directed to objects beyond the limits of the empire now turned towards its centre.

Could I here enter into a full examination of the state of Spain during those different epochs, the truth of the opinions I have advanced might perhaps be made

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to appear at once; but I think that the facts being stated in their proper places through the course of the following work will have a better effect, and that they will in that way be illustrated to greater advantage. Still, before we set out upon this long journey, I judge it right to recall to the reader's memory the principal revolutions which have had an influence in the fate of Spain, and to present them to him in a light conformable to the opinions I have expressed, in order that he may be satisfied beforehand that those opinions are neither unlikely, nor dictated by partiality.

"We follow what is probable," says Cicero, "and resolving not to go farther, we are prepared to receive criticism without anger, and to reply to it without pertinacity*."

Spain, situated, in a manner, between Europe and Africa, uniting the productions of both these quarters of the world, and enriched with every gift of nature, was

* Tuscul. Lib. II. C. 2.

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long an object of desire to nations, and a theme of fabulous histories to writers. While the Phenicians and the Grecians confined themselves to trading with the inhabitants, these readily gave up to them riches of which they felt not the value; but they defended them the moment they discovered that they were to be robbed of them. The Carthaginians and Romans felt the effects of their courage, and found that while the bosom of their soil teemed with every treasure, the bosoms of its inhabitants glowed with every virtue. After a long resistance however, the whole peninsula, compelled to submit to the masters of the world, delivered up their *triumphal gold*, their *captive wealth*, to adorn the trophies of Rome; but it was not long before, oppressed by the avarice of the Roman governors, they resumed the avenging steel of their forefathers. It does not belong to this work to describe those remote times, the great exploits of which have been so often re-achieved by the Spaniards. Without hope of succour, without even an object in their resistance,

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those proud barbarians slaughtered in their mountains armies sufficiently numerous to conquer kingdoms, and were not completely subdued till the reign of Augustus, when incorporated with the Roman empire Spain partook its tranquillity, and received at least in exchange for her liberty wise laws and a mild government. If she could not prevent herself from falling under the dominion of the masters of the world, she was at least the most powerful, the richest, and the happiest province of their empire. Columella has left us an interesting account of her agriculture under the first emperors. The tradition of her ancient population is probably exaggerated, but the ruins of several towns prove it to have been considerable. It was increased by a great many Roman families after the conquest: several legions were established in Spain; five and twenty colonies were distributed in the most fertile parts of the country, and intermarried with the inhabitants. After a while the Spaniards, seeing in their masters only countrymen, were the first to solicit the rights of Roman citizens, by

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which they were completely consolidated. Some municipal towns went so far as to desire permission to take the title of colonies, though in the change they lost their independence nearly in the same manner as certain proprietors of lands under the feudal system converted their domains into fiefs, in order to enjoy the honours attached to them. The government was, in general, milder in Spain than in the other Roman provinces. The administration was carried on in the towns by magistrates named by themselves, and the different provinces were under the superintendence of prætors, proconsuls, and legates or deputies, according to the different eras of the Roman empire: these in their respective departments took care of all the works of public utility, the aqueducts, baths, circuses, and highways, whose magnificent ruins are still existing; but they were principally employed in collecting the revenues of the state, which were singularly analogous to those of the present times. They principally arose from dues, fines, or alienations of property,

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and the produce of the mines. Spain at that time drew from her own mines the same riches she now draws from the new world, and they were distributed in nearly the same manner; one part belonged to the state, and the other to the people of the country, who paid a certain duty on the metals they dug out of the earth. Their returns went on increasing, and like that of America, depended solely on the number of hands which could be devoted to working the mines. But this laborious employment, which required a numerous population, tended to decrease it by the excessive fatigues it occasioned. The population of Spain was considerably diminished under the last emperors, and its agriculture suffered by the accumulation of estates in the hands of a small number of rich people, by the little attention paid to it by the proprietors of lands, and by the defects inherent in the system of cultivating by slaves. Commerce and industry, in the same manner, became languid, and Spain after sharing the grandeur

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of Rome was beginning to participate its decline, when a new calamity by completing her ruin prepared her regeneration.

If we are to credit the historians of the 4th and 5th centuries, it should seem that the north must have suddenly poured forth innumerable swarms of barbarians over civilized Europe. The icy plains of the pole, and the forests of the Sarmatians and of the Huns, might in that case have been justly called the *officina gentium*, a term which only the fine countries of the east deserved; but on reflection and an examination of those very authors, we find that the successes of the barbarians were less owing to their number than to the bad organization of the Roman troops at that time, and to the indifference of the people in the choice of their masters*.

* When the Vandals, under the conduct of Genseric, seized on Africa, they were but 30,000 in number, and yet they instantly subdued that province, the richest and most populous of the empire. They there destroyed, according to Procopius, upwards of 6,000,000 of men; so much can courage and cruelty terrify enervated nations, and so few are the obstacles opposed by the latter.

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The Suevi, Alani, and Vandals contended for Spain, and spread through this unhappy country all the evils attendant on war and famine; till, vanquished at length by the Goths, the inhabitants gave up their desolated country to the new invaders. These, far from repairing the losses of the nation, aggravated them the more: they seized on two-thirds of the lands, which they devoted to the feeding of cattle. Adhering to the manners of their fathers, more of herdsmen than husbandmen, and more of warriors than herdsmen, they looked with indifference on all that constitutes the wealth of empires and the happiness of nations. Their princes, perpetually engaged in civil or religious wars, contented themselves with conducting the affairs of their states, and dispensing justice among their subjects, without encouraging industry by any law or establishment favourable to it. It is to the character of these people, and to the idle and warlike life they introduced, and which events kept up in their successors, that we are to attribute the origin of that spirit of indolence which now seems

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natural to the Spanish nation, having been thus transmitted from age to age. The history of the Goths, then, offers nothing to our contemplation in respect to the mechanical arts or political economy; but in another point of view it is interesting; it exhibits Spain to us at length delivered from a foreign yoke, concentered within its natural limits, governed by princes of its own, and forming an independent state, a compact monarchy, whose laws, manners, and religion, have in a great measure remained *unaltered* for fourteen hundred years, in spite of all the events that have tended to effect a change.

In reflecting on the condition of Spain under the Romans and under the Goths, it is to be observed that those two nations have left in it memorials of their residence nearly equal as to number, but of a different nature. The public works, such as aqueducts, bridges, &c. and the modes of agriculture and industry descend from the Romans; and the laws, customs, administration, and form of government, are to be traced to the Goths. The rich cultiva-

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tion of the kingdom of Valencia; the horses, the oils, the wines of Andalusia; the corn of the Castiles; the linens and other manufactures of the Taragonnese, and the mines of Aragon and Biscay, continue the boast of Spain as they were in the time of the Romans. We evidently trace too the Visigothic code and ecclesiastical hierarchy, such as they were in the times of the Goths, the intolerance in affairs of religion, the principles of the inquisition in the persecution of the Jews, the origin of the prerogatives of the nobility, and that jealousy of the royal authority in the great, which, after causing the ruin of the empire under Rodrigo, constantly impeded its complete re-establishment under his successors, and gave rise to their bloody wars, which continued to the end of the 15th century. The composition and debates of the *councils* have their counterparts in the *cortes* of the different kingdoms; the election and deposition of kings bring to mind the terrible *union-juntas* of Aragon, and the states-general of Castile. Above all, the laws

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are remarkable for a spirit of chivalry and an evangelical character, which by the union of parts of the Roman law with the christian morality, composed a code superior to all others then existing.

Spain thus governed, thus consolidated as a nation, not split into petty feudal principalities like most of the other states of Europe, must no doubt in time have attained the degree of perfection to which other countries have risen. Its contested elections, its tumultuous assemblies, to be tranquillized wanted only the influence of a distinguished prince to impress this multitude with veneration, and render his authority hereditary. The foundations of a temperate monarchy*, wisely limited, were already laid by the existing

* Among conquering nations an aristocratic monarchy is naturally formed, on the one hand, by the valour of the chief, and on the other by the power of his armies, to whom he is under the necessity of granting rewards and a certain degree of authority. This is the reason that the new governments of Europe were not the work of legislators, but a natural result of the spirit that prevails in camps, and of the balance existing long after. We take

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institutions, and the people were prepared to appreciate the value of them. Religious and warlike like other nations in those times, they would no doubt like them have civilized themselves by bringing back with them from the crusades useful knowledge in return for useless battles. But that happy lot was not reserved for Spain: a memorable event took place which gave a complexion to its history different from that of the other states of Europe.

Mahomet had appeared in the east, and his religion was putting arms into the hands of the tranquil hordes of the Arabs, while christianity was instilling a peaceful spirit into the warlike nations of the north. Stimulated by the presence of the prophet, and, when they no longer had himself, by his doctrine, the Mussulmen extended their conquests from the frontiers of India to the shores of the Atlantic ocean. When

pleasure in observing the resemblance of modern constitutions to that of the Goths, as we recognize in the Egyptian temples the model of the Greek beauties, without being able to determine the origin of either.

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they had reached those limits of the known world, Spain appeared to them an important and easy conquest. By one battle they acquired the possession of that extensive country. There is scarcely an historian who does not impute that calamity to a supposed crime of Rodrigo, for which there is no authority, and which ought to be ranked in the number of those fables so common at the origin of empires. It was not to revenge an injury done to his daughter, that Count Julian, the governor of Africa, drew the Moors into Spain, but to raise a faction that was hostile to the king, and to gratify that ambition with which we have reproached the Gothic nobility, and of which they soon became the victims. It was much less owing to Rodrigo's weakness that he was ruined than to the constitution of his empire, which, by keeping the royal authority in a state of dependence on the nobility and clergy, prevented the general union of resistance against the common enemy.

The wrecks of the army of the Goths

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and some of their faithful leaders, retired to the mountains of the Asturias to seek the asylum and reflect on the virtues of the ancient Cantabrians. The rest of Spain submitted to the Moors. Exulting in so noble a conquest, the Mahometans scorned to complete it, but conceived the design of penetrating beyond the Pyrenees to found a new empire. The whole of Europe would have been lost, had not those terrible invaders met with soldiers better disciplined, and with abler chiefs. The battle of Tours for ever secured the empire of the Franks to the Gauls, and led to the revival of that of the Goths in Spain. The whole of the country occupied by that handful of warriors, was confined to the little principality of the Asturias, of which the hamlet of Cangas was the capital; but towards the conclusion of the eighth century, the successors of Pelagius extended their states into Galicia, Biscay, Navarre, and a part of Aragon. The conquests of Alphonso I. and of Alphonso III. farther enlarged the limits of this em-

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pire, and though the victories of Almanzor, over the feeble Veremont weakened the Christian States in 1020, they acquired new lustre under Ferdinand I. and under Alphonso VI.; who at length re-established his seat of Government at Toledo, which had before been the capital of the kingdom. I shall not enter into a detail of the wars and events which led to the formation of the kingdoms of Leon, Navarre, Castile, and Aragon, and which were signalized by heroic actions: suffice it to say that no history records a succession of princes so remarkable as those who shone in those different states. Eleven kings of the name of Alphonso were most of them distinguished characters: the tenth invented the Alphonsine tables, and superintended the digesting of the code of laws which likewise bears his name. Three Ferdinands were no less celebrated, and the last reigned over the whole of the Spanish monarchy, by virtue of his marriage with the heiress of Castile. That general and important union would have taken place much sooner, had it not been

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for the dismembering of the territories, occasioned by alliances, by the personal wars of sovereigns, and the portions which they always had the imprudence to settle upon their children. At length, after the duration of a balance of power for eight centuries, the Moors were reduced to nearly the same space of territory as the Romans preserved in the reign of Justinian, and from which they were driven likewise by a Gothic king.

It remains for us to enquire what was the political, agricultural, and commercial state of Spain during those troublesome times, under the government of its ancient, and of its new masters. Divided among sovereigns of different nations and religions; parcelled out in little states without frontiers or guaranty, and perpetually a prey to war, Spain could not hope for prosperity, or any improvement of its industry. Besides the general wars of nation against nation between the Christians and Arabs, both sides were torn by dissensions among themselves, caused, on the part of the Moors by the difference of

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sects, family animosities, and the multiplicity of nations of which their empire was composed; and on that of the Christians by the defects of the feudal laws, the rights of private wars, and the jealous power of the great and of the clergy. The Goths particularly could hardly be induced to relinquish their ancient habits, of which there are still traces in the later laws, and in several parts of the form of government. Heedless of the experience of former calamities resulting from such a form of government the kingdom of Leon continued long elective, and the right of election remained in the palatins and bishops. Notwithstanding the advantages of agriculture, of which they were fully sensible, they preferred the wandering and martial life of their fathers. The care of flocks and herds, which from time immemorial had enriched the kingdoms of Leon and Castile, appeared to them a securer source of wealth, as it was more easily removed from the inroads of an enemy. In fact, their armies in those days were composed of all the inhabitants, who followed the standards of their lords or the

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colours of their parish. They left behind only their old men, women, and children, to whom they might trust the care of flocks and herds, but whom they could never leave to till the land, which requires constant and laborious occupation, and a settled establishment. The small quantity of corn they grew in the interior parts of the country, and in the northern provinces rarely sufficed for their consumption. To enable them to purchase grain and manufactured commodities, of which they were likewise in want, they sold their wools, hides, iron and oil, which from the tenth century, were always resorted to for balancing what they took from foreigners. The wool was, even in the ninth century, so fine, that the kings of Persia and Africa sent a certain quantity of it to Charlemagne as a present, and added to it some Spanish horses and mules, which were highly prized.

The aversion of the Spaniards to agriculture, was nothing compared to that which they showed to the mechanical arts. This of course rendered them constant tri-

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butaries to the industry of other nations, even during the boasted reigns of Ferdinand, Charles V. and Philip II. Their situation was never better in this respect; and the complaints of decline which we perpetually meet with in the latest authors of the sixteenth century, prove nothing more than that men in general have a habit of looking back to past times, to find consolation for present ills, *laudatores temporis acti*: such are the inhabitants of every country, the historians of all times. Man feels a certain uneasiness in his present condition, a regret or impatience of happiness which renders his writings as well as his hopes fallacious: hence that uncertainty respecting the periods of the greatness, and of the decline of nations, those accounts of their power always the more exaggerated the nearer they ascend to their origin, and which are at length lost in tradition so remote as to be no longer subject to the test of reason.

This was the case with Spain, and we are astonished to find the account of its riches and population more and more bril-

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liant the higher we go into times when its territory was less considerable. In the history of the wars we always find more soldiers when there are fewer people. Without taking into consideration the fabulous exploits of the battle of Clavijo, suffice it to adduce that of Las Navas, in which, according to eye-witnesses, and all the Spanish historians, 200,000 Moors were killed, and only twenty-five Christians. From this exaggeration we may form an idea of the confidence to be placed in the same writers on other points.

If agriculture had been in a flourishing state in the reigns of Ferdinand, and of Charles V., as is generally believed, how comes it that we hear of no public establishment of those times that proves it? Where are the canals, the highways, the bridges, the dikes, the parish roads, and, above all, the ordinances of the kings, and the statutes of corporate police, which show the protection of the government, and the zeal of the governed? On the contrary, is not the principal object of the laws of those times, institutions in direct opposi-

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tion to agriculture, such as, the privileges of the Mesta, the removing of flocks and herds, and the management of bees? And why do all the historians of that age complain of the bad state of that important branch of public welfare?

Cardinal Ximenes, at the end of Ferdinand's reign, engaged Don Alonzo de Herrera, to write a treatise on agriculture, for the encouragement of that neglected science. Several passages in this work show how little cultivation was attended to, and what obstacles were in the way of its improvement. We shall be still more convinced of this in reading the rescript of Philip II., in 1594, which begins thus: "We "have been informed that the husbandmen "are in want of seed to sow their lands, "and of cattle to plough them; that the "earth being badly cultivated does not "return what it ought, and that persons "possessing farms reap no advantage from "them. Therefore to remedy these evils "we are desirous of employing the means "proposed to us by the Cortes now as-"sembled in our city of Madrid. Having

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" consulted our council, we desire that " tillage should not cease, but on the con- " trary that it should be carried on and " increased, &c." Some time after, there appeared on the subject of this rescript, a commentary by Jacobo Collante *, which shows still better all the evils to be remedied. The same proofs are likewise to be found in a work of Lope de Deza's, entitled *Political Government of Agriculture* †. Such is the sterility of our country, says the preamble of a law of Aragon, that if we did not find amends for our poverty in our rights and in the liberty which distinguishes us from the other inhabitants of Spain, we should quit the kingdom and seek a settlement in a better country ‡.

Let any one go through Andalusia and Estremadura, and judge whether the towns

* In three volumes 4to, Madrid, 1606, intitled *Commentariorum pragmaticæ in favorem rei frumentariæ et Agricolarum*, by Jacobo Collante of Avellaneda.

† *Gobierno politico de la Agricultura*, tome 1, Madrid, 1618. See the History of the Commerce of Barcelona by M. Campany.

‡ Blanca, Comment, p. 751.

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and villages are not the same that existed there three centuries ago, and enquire whether any other places were ever mentioned in any chronicle or account of the journeys and expeditions of the kings. From Seville to Cordova, a distance of twenty-two leagues, there never were any other towns than Carmona and Ecija; and from S. Lucar to Seville only three petty villages without the vestige of a farm, which does not say much in favour of the cultivation of the country. If the kingdom of Leon and old Castile be very deficient in villages, as we have had occasion to observe, on the other hand Madrid, which then was nothing, has increased in population 130,000 souls; new towns have every where risen in the environs of Cadiz, Malaga, and Valencia; and the Sierra Morena, once the haunt of robbers, is settled in various places by foreigners. Besides, how could agriculture have flourished after all the plagues and epidemic diseases by which Spain was overwhelmed during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. In 1483, the plague raged in Catalonia;

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in 1486, in Aragon; it spread, in 1488, into Andalusia; in 1490, into the kingdom of Granada; and raged so violently at Saragossa in 1495, that king Ferdinand was obliged to hold the States at Tarazona. It was the same in 1501 and in 1506: but the most violent and most general was in 1507; it was so horrible, according to the account given by Miguel Martines de Leyva, that for a century after, the lands were seen lying waste, and the villages empty, nor have the disasters then sustained been repaired since that period.

It does not appear that manufactures, during the same reigns, were in a better state, or that Spain had acquired that degree of industry and wealth which have been attributed to it. Had that been the case, how happens it that foreign contemporary authors take no notice of it? Balducci Pegalotti *, in his voluminous Treatise on Commerce, written in the year 1339,

* The *Pratica Mercantile* of Francisco Balducci Pegalotti, 1339. See Capmany's History of the Commerce of Barcelona.

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does not make any mention of the ports or manufactures of Spain; yet he speaks of all the marts of Europe, of those of Flanders, Champagne, Provence, Lombardy, and England; and we find that the few commercial towns of Spain which he names exported only raw materials. His countryman Giovanni de Usano*, who wrote a hundred years after, also passes over in silence those famous manufactures of Segovia, Toledo, Burgos, and Seville, about which the pleading historians of Spain make so much noise; but he gives an exact account of the quantity of wool that was sent out of the country†.

In the archives of the crowns of Castile and Aragon‡, there is a statement of all

* The *Pratica del Commercio* of Giovanni de Usano, 1440.

† By the 19th article of the Cortes of Barcelona of the year 1481, a tax of six deniers per arroba was laid on unwashed wool, and twelve on the washed, which was exported from Aragon and Castile by the way of Tortosa; it paid four times as much if sent by any other port of Catalonia. Capmany, *Questiones varias.*

‡ Book of the Laws and Rescripts collected by order of

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the duties paid from the thirteenth to the end of the seventeenth century for foreign cloths sold in Spain, and for other articles of consumption coming from abroad. The principal cloths came from Bruges, Montpellier, and London; the velvets from Malines, Courtrai, Ypres, and Florence. This trade became so injurious to Spain, that Ferdinand and Isabella thought themselves bound to limit it entirely to the stuffs required for the ornaments of the church, which of itself was a considerable quantity. Their prohibition is the subject of the rescript of Sept. 2, 1494, for the provinces of the crown of Castile. Even so far back as the ordinances of Barcelona in 1271, mention is made of the taxes levied on the cloths of Flanders, Arras, Lannoy, Paris, St. Dennis, Chalons, Beziers and Rheims. When James II. of Aragon, in 1314 and 1322, was thinking of sending presents to the Sultan of Egypt, he made

the Catholic kings, and printed at Alcala de Henarez in 1528, by Miguel de Eguia. See what is said on this head in the article *Manufactures* in Vol. IV. of this work.

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choice of the green cloths of Chalons, and the scarlet ones of Rheims and Douay, but sent no Spanish stuff, not thinking them sufficiently fine to be given as a present. By the accounts of Ferdinand V's. steward, we see that that monarch and his whole court wore none but foreign cloths *. It was the same with all silks, velvets, and gold and silver brocades, which were taken from Lucca, Florence, and Pisa; with linens, muslins and laces, which were brought from Flanders and Ireland; with hard-ware, glass, and gold and silver articles, which came from Lombardy and Germany; and, which is more extraordinary, with ammunition for fire-arms †. All the demands of the Cortes from the commencement of the sixteenth century, tend to the prohibition of all those commodi-

* Capmany, *Questiones varias.* This excellent memoir is very accurate on this subject, and has been extremely useful to me.

† See the work of Doctor Francisco Villalobos, physician to the emperor Charles V. intitled *Problems Natural and Moral.*

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ties*, which, they said, robbed the country of the treasures which they sent for to the new world. This, however, was the period of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, so much boasted.

In the list of duties paid by the company of Burgos merchants in 1514, it does not appear that they exported a single article manufactured; the whole trade of the Castiles consisted, as before, of wool, iron, wine, oil, and other raw materials. The same articles are found in the ordinances of 1537. We shall see, a little further, that this unfavourable state only grew worse during the reign of Charles V. and Philip II. The little progress made by the Spaniards in all kinds of industry was owing, as we have already said, to the continual wars in which they were involved. The enthusiasm of honour and religion, the grand spring of action in chivalrous times, had, during peace, dege-

* See the petition of the Cortes of Valladolid in 1548 and in 1593.

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nerated into a spirit of pride and idleness, incompatible with application to mechanical arts. This fault, which among the Spaniards originated more in their institutions than in their character, might easily have been corrected by their sovereigns, had they taken pains to overcome it; but while they had wars to sustain, it was not their interest; and, afterwards, their power was always too much limited. The privileges which most of the commons had acquired in shaking off the yoke of the Moors *themselves*, or by other services done in times of difficulty, were so considerable, that the kings of the different states possessed but little influence over them, and still less over the great and the clergy. It was not possible therefore to effect such an improvement till the reign of Ferdinand, who had not time, and was perhaps mistaken in the means of success.

That prince, one of the greatest monarchs Spain had ever had, united on his own head the crowns of all the provinces; he had conquered the kingdoms of Granada and Navarre, and what was still more dif-

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ficult, he had lowered the power of the great, and incorporated in his own domains the immense properties that had been annexed to the appointments of the military orders.

It only remained for him to encourage industry in his states, and to set on foot an economical system, which he might have left to his successors to follow and consolidate. By a single error, or rather by too precipitate a measure, he lost the fruit of all his care, and the advantages of his situation. I allude to the expulsion of the Jews and Moors, the former of whom were the merchants, and the latter the agriculturists of Spain. There are two ways of considering this important question, the one in a political point of view, the other in a view relative to industry. No doubt it must have appeared advantageous in the former. Ferdinand, though master of Spain, was not yet master of its inhabitants; and he had learned by experience, that conquered nations are not subjects unless they adopt the same religion, language, and habits. The Jews,

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whom he had determined to banish, were the descendants of those who had in the reign of Roderic invited the Moors from Africa, and who had afterwards fomented most of the divisions which brought on the ruin of those very Moors; they were the Jews who exercised all the trades, who possessed all the capitals, who impeded the rising efforts of the Catholics in industry, and, keeping the nation dependent upon them, would have constantly obliged them to devote themselves to a kind of life to which they were unhappily but too much inclined, that of war and idleness. Poland and Russia are striking examples of the harm the Jews do in a country but little civilized. Masters of the cash of the nation without attachment to the soil, possessing influence by their fortune and intrigues without being citizens, they may be considered as foreign plants sucking the juices of the state, and their *clandestine riches**, to

* *Encyclopedie Méthodique, liv.* 1. *page* 72, *on Political Economy.* I allow that Jews may sometimes be useful to the country in which they reside, but then it must be among nations naturally industrious, or totally incapable of becoming so.

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use the expression of a writer on political economy, *know neither king nor country.*

The Moors, who were more attached to their country than to their religious opinions, were, doubtless, less dangerous: nor were they expelled at once; but, being oppressed, most of them withdrew from the country in a short time after the conquest, and the remainder were driven out in the next century. From the time of Ferdinand to Philip III, more than three millions of those two nations quitted Spain, and carried with them not only a great part of their acquired wealth, but industry and the love of work, which are the soul of it.

Spain still feels this loss, and it is one that it will never completely repair. Certainly, it was desirable to do without those two classes of industrious subjects; but then it was necessary to be able to replace them; it was necessary, by wise laws, rewards, and encouragements, to direct the natural bent of the Spaniards for every kind of serious occupation towards industry; in short it was necessary either to

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naturalize among them the qualities of the Arabs, or by proper treatment to bring these over to the belief which it was determined should be general throughout the kingdom. If the kings of the different christian provinces of Spain had adopted this system, as the Mahometan kings had done, industry would have been preserved in their states in the same manner, and they would have learned from their enemies how to surpass them in wealth as well as in courage and military science: they had only to imitate them. The Goths hardly took a few fields or a town but they found themselves, in the one case, masters of plantations, canals, granaries, and instruments of agriculture; in the other, of looms, forges, glass-houses, mills, winding machines, &c. which they had only to keep up and continue, and thus to extend at once the limits of their states and of their knowledge: the Moors, expert in all the mechanical arts, and particularly skilled in agriculture, had carried every branch of public and private economy to the highest degree of perfection. They had introduced

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into Spain the cultivation of sugar, cotton, silk, and rice; they had made canals for irrigation, and reservoirs by means of which they conveyed water to the highest and driest lands. Their estates, divided into little fields and constantly tilled, as is the case in countries of confined cultivation, formed a striking contrast to the immense wastes of the Spanish lords, to the domains of the crown, and to those of religious corporations. The Arabs obtained their knowledge of agriculture from the traditions of the east, the works of the Caldeans, the writings of Mago the Carthaginian, and some Greek authors whose books have not come down to us: they possessed, in particular, a treatise on Nabathæn agriculture, which they seem to have constantly followed, and which was found to be perfectly adapted to the climate and soil of the country they inhabited. Almost the whole of this invaluable work, which was written in Chaldean, has been translated and new modelled in the complete Treatise on Agriculture, by Abu Zachariah, of Seville, better known

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by the name of *Ebn el Awam.* We see in it the minute attention which those nations paid to every branch of cultivation, to the analysis and classification and manure of the soils, and to rustic buildings, plantations, and the care of animals. It is a memorial of the highest degree to which this species of industry can be carried *; and Spain may boast the possession of the three most complete works, written in different ages on this subject; that of Columella under the Romans, that of Alonzo de Herrera in the fifteenth century, and the Treatise of which we are speaking.

The Moors were no less skilful in all kinds of manufactures: the invention of paper is due to them; and particularly silk and cotton stuffs, morocco leather, &c. were brought to perfection by them. The Geographer of Nubia who travelled in

* The Moors had gone so far as to unite the tropic plants with those of Europe; they raised in the open air the banana, the pistachio, the sesamum, the sugar-cane, and a species of rice, the cultivation of which had the advantage of not requiring so much water, and consequently of not being unwholesome.

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Spain about the twelfth century, declares that in the kingdom of Jaen alone there were six hundred towns or boroughs which traded in silk. The stuffs made at Granada were prized in the east, and even at Constantinople, where all the arts were flourishing at that period. They are frequently mentioned in the Greek manuscripts of the Low-Empire, among others, in a review published on the History of the Deacon Leo *; and we find that Granada stuffs, the beauty of which was greatly admired, appeared in Greece in the reign of Comnenus †.

* See *Notice de M. Hasse*, inserted in the extracts of the Imperial Library, vol. viii. M. Hasse began a translation of that curious work, and it is to be hoped that he will soon publish it.

† There is in the Imperial Library, a satirical, but unpublished work in Greek, something in the style of the Mennipean satire, and composed in the reign of the Commenuses. Timario, one of the speakers in the piece, gives an account of his journey from Constantinople to a great fair held at Salonica on St. Demetrius's day, and treats very much at large of the productions and merchandise then collected in the great plain on the side of the Axius to the north of the town. This curious monument relative to the history of the commerce of the twelfth century,

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With a state of industry so improved, the Moors united the study of letters and the sciences; and so early as in the reign of Abderame I. who was contemporary with Charlemaine, they had a great many libraries and public schools. The illustrious names of Avicenna and Averroes, bring to mind the glorious times of Greece. To this extraordinary concurrence of talents, knowledge, and genius, they added the martial and chivalrous virtues. They had no sooner subdued Spain by their arms than they sought to attach the people by their favours. They left the vanquished nations their laws, religion and language, and only required of them the tribute which they had paid to their former masters: and they particularly showed great deference and

which, however, is in many places very difficult to be understood, mentions that Sclavonians, Italians, Spaniards, and Frenchmen walked about in the long streets formed by the booths. The cotton of Livadia and the Morea was there in as much request as it is at this time; but the most admired tissues were those of the Moors of Granada and Andalusia, (the columns of Hercules). Ἡρακλειοι ιστῆλαι, ἰσουργοῦσαι τῶν ἱπίπλων τὰ κάλλιστα.

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respect to the women, which proves a high degree of civilization. Their noble conduct inspired the Christian princes with such confidence, that they sent their children to their schools for instruction, and called in their physicians in dangerous cases.

Disposed to a ready adoption of whatever springs from nobleness of sentiment, the Spaniards soon surpassed their rivals in generous qualities, but scorned to imitate them in arts, literature, and useful knowledge. A false pride, the relic of feudal times, a barbarian prejudice that considered war as the only noble profession, restrained that happy disposition: it appeared to them shameful to engage in the servile occupations of their vanquished enemies. The habit of temperance, the pride of independence and military glory, prevented their being sufficiently charmed by luxury to sacrifice to it the tranquil enjoyment of life and the prejudices of self-love. The Spaniard had always fortitude enough to endure privations, but never courage enough to encounter work, and

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still less the power of surmounting the shame which he thinks attached to it. It is this old and unconquerable disposition* that rendered the expulsion of the Moors and Jews fatal to Spain, because it prevented the loss of them being remedied. The country has suffered no decline, as it has been the practice to inculcate, for, in fact, it never attained any eminent degree of prosperity. The cause just mentioned has always prevented every improvement of the branches of its industry; and even now, when the progress of civilization, patriotic societies, encouragements by sovereigns, and the reasonings of enlightened men, have combined to honour industry, the prejudice against it still exists in the most numerous class of the nation. The provinces formerly behind hand in this respect, are still so in proportion with the others, and it would require new and more active means to surmount this terrible obstacle to

* See what is said on this head in the account I have given of the Spanish character, Vol. V. The Spanish writers have at all times lamented this unfortunate failing.

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the prosperity of Spain. No manufactory that is established lasts long: the very man who argues strenuously against such folly would be wretched if he thought that any ancestor of his had made a fortune by trade*. By an unaccountable caprice, the condition of a servant in Spain appears less degrading than any business whatever†. *For the time being*, they say, *nobility sleeps, but in commerce it becomes extinct.*

However absurd such ideas may be,

* Those who exercise any trade endeavour to ennoble it by an alteration of the name. The bricklayer calls himself an architect, the farrier a master smith, the workman an artist, and the dealer a merchant: his shop he denominates a magazine, where his wife seldom chuses to appear and assist him in his trade; on the contrary, with scarcely enough to live upon, she herself hires a servant, who, as idle and as proud as her mistress, only serves her to escape working in the fields, which is more laborious, and, in her idea, still more humiliating.

† Count de Froberg, with whom I travelled for some time in Spain, having occasion to hire a servant, was applied to by a man from the mountains of St. Andero, whom he told to go and bring his certificates, when he would determine, if they were right. The man, not knowing what was meant, returned with the most authentic documents of nobility from king Ordonius II.

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certain it is that we cannot but admire that native loftiness which is inherent in the minds of the Spaniards of every class, and that hereditary honour which nothing can shake; which shows itself in all their conduct; which gives a nobleness to their appearance, to their behaviour, to their slightest expressions; that makes them prefer poverty in their native country to better living in a foreign land; which, in short, seems to be a combination of the patriarchal dignity of the eastern nations and of the austere virtues of the primitive Christians. But the more we feel disposed to honour these original qualities, the less must we think them incompatible with exertion and activity; yet it is but too common to depreciate industry by calling it mean, as if the principle which enriches and renders states happy had any thing in it that tended to degrade them. Did not Venice sustain a war against all Europe while she was the emporium of the commerce of the whole world? When the Dutch beat the fleets of England and Spain, was it not at a time when they were the only vendors

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of pepper and indigo? Have the French degenerated since the administration of Colbert? And among the Spaniards are not the Catalans, Aragonese, and Biscayans the most warlike of the nation, though they are the most commercial? Not reckoning that a fourth of the population of Spain is composed of persons living on their property without doing any thing, the country contains 100,000 individuals existing as smugglers*, robbers, mule shearers, pirates, and assassins escaped from prisons or garrisons; about 30 or 40,000 officers appointed to take these, and having an understanding with them; 250,000 servants, ac-

* While I was laboriously employed in Estremadura in tracing the Roman ways described in Antoninus's Itinerary, I happened to fall in with a band of thirty smugglers, who were giving their horses water; they were come from the frontiers of Portugal with a great quantity of tobacco. Wanting information on several things which it was difficult for me to obtain in that country, where one sometimes travels nine or ten leagues without seeing a house, I joined these men and travelled three days in company with them. I never met with better people: they called one another *cavalleros*, and paid me great attention. Their leader, who was a good-looking man and excellent company, told me all the abuses prevailing in the custom-

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cording to the enumeration of 1788, of whom 100,000 at least are not employed, though of a proper age; and 60,000 students, most of whom beg charity, at night, under pretence of buying books. If to this list we add 100,000 beggars whom 60,000 monks feed at the gates of their convents, we shall find in Spain nearly 600,000 persons who are of no use whatever in agriculture or the mechanical arts, and who are frequently dangerous to society. Heaven forbid, however, that I should think of advising violent means for rectifying these abuses; the slightest persecutions might be attended with the most serious consequences; but wise laws, encouragements, a strict police, and activity on the part of the government, would soon remedy them. Meanwhile, the influence

houses, and the means which he took to avoid the king's troops, though he had little fear of the rencontre if they were to meet. He was related to several manufacturers at Seville, who lent him money, which he punctually repaid. He said that he had often been tempted to give up this occupation, which he found unpleasant in some things, but that a charm, for which he could not account, attached him to the independent and wandering life he led.

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of the high clergy and the use they make of their riches have great effect in maintaining peace and good order. They act as stewards managing the property of the poor, and distributing it to them without suffering them to make a bad use of it. A rigid economy and an excellent management of their estates enable those religious men to support a number of wretched beings, and at least to save them from despair. They do not, as is imagined, encourage idleness, but prevent crimes, and supply the place of institutions till institutions shall supply the place of their ministry.

In addition to this repugnance to work, with which the Spaniards are so much reproached by their best writers, there were political causes no less injurious to them, and which perhaps rendered the over-vaunted reigns of Charles V. and Philip II. brilliant in the annals of the Austrian monarchy, but of little interest in those of Spain. Those princes had immense dominions spread over the north, east, and south of Europe. To them Spain was but one of the provinces of their empire, and all the resources of which they exhausted for the

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interest of their other states. That period gave birth to the science of politics, which before it produced the balance of Europe was long the cause of its calamities. In the general shock of those times Spain might have stood aloof, as well on account of its situation as the little interest it had in augmenting its empire. Instead of sending its sons to perish in the rebellions of the Low Countries, in fruitless invasions of Italy, of the kingdom of Naples, or of the coasts of Africa, all its inhabitants and all its riches should have been employed in improving its industry, and in spreading cultivation to the deserted portions of its lands. The only return made by most of the distant countries to which the blood of its people and the treasures of its colonies were sacrificed, was the ruin of its commerce and manufactures.

We have already seen to what a degree the commodities of the Milanese and of the Low Countries at all times made their way in Spain, without the slightest opposition or competition; they succeeded infinitely more when those provinces united

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under the same government, participated the monarch's favour, and were even in the reign of Charles V. constantly preferred. So early even as the thirteenth century, Bruges had become the greatest entrepot of the merchandise of the east, and of the manufactures of the north; thence they were sent to the other parts of Europe, and principally to Spain. Lombardy had another kind of traffic no less injurious, that of lending its money at exorbitant interest. Spain was thus tributary to the Lombards on the one hand, and to the Flemings on the other, though the mother-country of both. It is evident how irksome this state of things became to the Spaniards about the sixteenth century, by the repeated rebellions that took place under Charles V., and by the opposition made to granting him the subsidies he demanded for his foreign wars, while he would easily have obtained them by an amelioration of the country. The deputies of Castile spoke openly on the subject in 1527 and refused every grant. The petition 124 of the Cortes of Valladolid in 1542 runs thus: "Your

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"Majesty's enterprises in Germany and in "Italy have drawn into this country an "enormous number of foreigners, who, "not satisfied with the exchanges, com- "missions, and profits they make, and "that your majesty allows them, have "monopolized every kind of commerce "by which your subjects gained their "livelihood. They do not confine them- "selves to farming the estates annexed to "Bishoprics, Lordships, Official Reve- "nues, &c. and to making a profit of land- "ed property, they even go so far as to "buy up, wholesale, wool, silk, iron, and "other raw materials, thus cutting off all "the means of existence from the greater "part of your subjects, who see with grief "what belongs to them go into the hands "of those covetous people." The Spanish merchants discouraged by the advantages which the foreigners possessed over them, and by the capitals of which those persons had the disposal, resigned all business to them; and the Jews, whose expulsion might at least have been politic, were succeeded by other people not less avaricious,

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and more dangerous, from the circumstance of their not settling in the country. Damien de Olivares says that in 1610 there were 160,000 foreigners in the Castiles, and among those 10,000 Genoese, who filled almost all the lucrative places, and transacted all the business of the country. Sancho de Moncada, who wrote in 1619, complains of the indifference of the people of the country, and says that foreigners carried five-sixths of the commerce of Spain, and nine-tenths of that of the Indies; and that they drew from the two Castiles alone upwards of twenty-five millions of ducats yearly, twenty for the merchandise they sold, and the remaining five in pensions, exchange, agency, commission, ecclesiastical rents, farms, &c. so that eight millions a year was the most that Spain derived from its fleets.

The trade of the Low Countries was so unfavourable to Spain in 1545, that Jod dam Houder, a Fleming*, who wrote at

* This work is intitled: *Declamatio panegyrica in laudem Hispaniæ nationis quæ in Flandria jam olim fixa*

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that period, expresses himself thus: "Of "all the nations of Europe, Spain fur- "nishes us the most with every kind of "merchandise. The quantity of wool she "sends us is so great, that what comes to "Bruges amounts annually to from thirty- "six to forty thousand bales and upwards, "each of which costs sixteen ducats and "makes *two pieces and a half* of cloth, "which is at once more than double the "worth of the bale after the first prepara- "tion, and before it receives the finish; "all these cloths are sent back in the very "Spanish ships which bring the wool, and "are distributed in the kingdoms of Cas- "tile, Majorca, Navarre, Aragon, Portu- "gal, Andalusia, Seville, Valencia, Catalo- "nia, and other rich countries of Spain; "and from this we may judge of the pro- "fits which Flanders makes by this kind "of commerce. Besides these cloths, we "send from Holland, Friesland, Amster- "dam, Bruges, Ghent, &c. all the linens,

sede celeberrimam negotiationem exercet. This celebrated trade which Spain carried on was leading her to the finest ruin possible.

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" cambrics, cotton and muslin stuffs, Ou-
" denarde and Brussels carpets, &c. and
" so great a quantity of hardware, that the
" Spaniards frequently load fifty ships
" with it."

If such was the commerce Spain carried on with the Low Countries, what shall we say of her trade with the rest of Europe, particularly Italy? It was in vain that the Cortes petitioned against the admission of foreign merchandise, or that the kings prohibited it, the frequent journeys of the monarchs, the concerns of politics which entirely absorbed them, and the low state of the finances, which made it necessary to augment the public revenue by custom-houses and to permit importations, rendered all the other measures null. This disastrous state grew much worse under the last monarch of the House of Austria. Following the steps of their ancestors without possessing their genius, they completed the ruin of their country, and enervated all the branches of the monarchy. When Philip V. ascended the throne, and the remainder of those distant provinces still

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belonging to Spain, was by the treaty of Utrecht conveyed to other hands, men beheld with astonishment the skeleton of that monarchy, the population of which was reduced to nothing, and all the branches of industry and government in the most disastrous state. It seemed as if Philip V. had succeeded the last Gothic King in the eighth century, rather than a descendant of Charles V. in the eighteenth. Europe amazed, enquired by what illusion it had been subjected to a country, which had not six millions of inhabitants, which it had furnished with its ships, warlike stores, clothes, all the articles of luxury, and even most of those of necessity?

The civilians and political writers who had ascribed to Spain alone the power of Charles V. and Philip II. sought likewise in Spain alone the cause whence such a decline could proceed, and they did not perceive that that kingdom, taken singly, had never been either richer or more flourishing, and that it had never even had the means of becoming so.

Among the general causes then assigned

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for this supposed decline, there are two that have been particularly received and credited, no doubt from their whimsical and paradoxical air. The first is the discovery of America; the second the establishment of the inquisition. There was something acute in maintaining that the country of gold had produced poverty, and that religious institutions had at all times been nurses of ignorance. A moment's examination of these assertions is enough to convince us that they are unfounded.

We know the difficulties experienced by Columbus in his application to the powers of Europe for the ships and crews necessary for the execution of his enterprise; but we seem to have forgotten that it was without the concurrence of Ferdinand that Queen Isabella consented to be at the expence of that expedition, and that she then reserved for her subjects of Castile exclusively, all the advantages of an undertaking, the whole charge and cost of which they supported.

Columbus's expedition could not but

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succeed, and the issue of it was less a discovery, though it has retained that name, than the taking possession of a country, the existence, and nearly the situation, of which was no longer doubtful. However, the greater the queen thought the hazard in that respect, the more she exacted a rigid performance of the compact entered into; and in fact, only the people of Castile were allowed to go and trade in the new possessions, and to settle there, not only at first but for two centuries after the conquest. The states of Aragon then could never suffer by a thing with which they never had any concern whatever; yet we see that at that time, and long after, their situation was at least as bad as that of the other provinces, whereas, on the contrary we may date their prosperity and wealth from the moment they were enabled to trade freely with America.

In 1368 Catalonia, including Roussillon and Cerdagne, could reckon only 365,000 inhabitants. In 1553 the number was 25,000 less: and thus it continued till the

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end of the 17th century, without the possibility of being affected by the discovery of America. At the end of the 18th century its population was doubled, though it no longer had Roussillon, which had been given up to France by the treaty of the Pyrenees; and it is observable that this population, though greatly augmented in the interior of the province, was much more considerable on the coast, where wealth flowed chiefly from commerce. The kingdom of Valencia, which in 1550 contained only 54,555 families, reckons at present 200,000; and that of Aragon has increased in population nearly one-half in the same time. These three provinces have chiefly experienced this prodigious increase since the edict of free trade in 1778; and the establishment of their numerous manufactures, may likewise be dated from the same period. The case is the same with several other parts of Spain, such as Galicia, Biscay, and the Asturias. Now, as both before and since the discovery of America, the provinces which had no participation in it, suffered the same diminu-

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tion in their population as the others, it follows that this ruinous state throughout the monarchy must have been owing to other causes more direct and more general. But taking the question in another point of view, we shall be still more completely convinced.

The statements published by Baron de Humboldt show beyond a doubt that the proportion of births to deaths is, almost throughout New Spain, as 170 to 100, and even in the high plain of Mexico as 230 to 130. According to this calculation the population must have doubled itself in the one case in 19 years, in the other in fourteen or fifteen *, and acquired a considerable extension, especially when we consider that for three centuries the inhabitants of that peaceful country have been exempt from

* Voyage de M. A. de Humboldt, lib. ii. cap. 4. p. 61. We shall not think this calculation exaggerated, when we recollect that in New Jersey the proportion is three hundred to one hundred; and that Russia, the inhabitants of which in 1783 did not amount to more than 25,677,000, has at present a population of upwards 40,000,000, though situated in a rigorous climate.

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wars, epidemic diseases, and other calamities, with which the continent of Europe has been infested. Nor do Europeans or descendants of Europeans form an eighth of the population, and they inhabit only the interior of the country which comprehends the States of Montezuma II., and in which the principal mines are situated. If the emigration to the new world had been so considerable as to depopulate the old, as some have thought proper to say, and that population had increased for three centuries in the proportion we have just shown, the number of the whites would have been much greater, and would have spread throughout the fertile countries of the coasts, where a more active climate unites the productions of the tropics with those of Europe, which are found in the regions more elevated. The number of 1,200,000 whites spread over the whole of New Spain, is nothing in proportion to the extent of the country, the mass of the original inhabitants, and the increase of population. It does not indicate a much greater emigration than that which still

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takes place, and which does not exceed 300 individuals, including the agents of the government, who almost make up that number, and who are remunerated by the American Colonists, whose affairs bring them to the continent.

We may form a judgment of the state of Spanish America, in the centuries past, by that of the United States in this. These provinces left to themselves multiply their inhabitants in a prodigious manner entirely by affording them a comfortable existence, by the extent of property, and by the facility of living, and even of acquiring wealth in cultivating the land; they have no need whatever of new settlers from Europe. The present political writers nevertheless would fain persuade us still that the increased population of the United States of America is owing to the emigration from Europe. Mr. Page *, in his work on St. Domingo, in other respects highly valuable, asserts that the United States annually receive 100,000 new set-

* Vol. II. page 427.

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tlers, while in the Statistical statements published two years ago by authority of the President of the United States *, we see that in the two years when the emigration was greatest, that is to say in 1784 and 1792, it did not exceed five thousand individuals, part of whom were going to Canada. Nevertheless the population of Europe is treble what it was in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. America is the only country in which the unfortunate, the dissatisfied, and speculators from every part of the world, can find an asylum; it is the only neutral country where agriculture and commerce still offer a chance of acquiring wealth. Now if, notwithstanding all these considerations, the number of people emigrating from Europe is not greater, what must it have been when the emigration was but from one half of Spain, only twice in the year, and that to an unknown country at every hazard? There were several other obstacles in the way of this emigration, and principally the very

* Samuel Blodget's Statistical Manual, 1806.

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laws of the country, which included the subjects of the crown of Castile. By a law of the 7th of August 1584, it is enacted, that no person shall go to America without an express permission from the king, and that permission was not to be obtained but by producing a certificate of morals and a regular life, a condition very unlike the customs of other countries, which considered their colonies as the proper place for all the worthless. Besides this formality, the persons applying were obliged to fix themselves in the province they had chosen, without the power of removing to another, and the priests were bound by the same laws. Furthermore, no person who had incurred an ecclesiastical censure, or received any reprimand whatever from the tribunal of the inquisition, was allowed to go to America.

We may, even from the marvellous accounts given by historians, be convinced that the first conquerors of America were but few in number. Cortez took with him only 508 soldiers and 109 sailors badly armed, and with those managed to subdue

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a country containing 6,000,000 of inhabitants; and Pizarro made himself master of Peru with 180 men. How absurd soever these tales may be, they at least tend to prove that the number of those adventurers was not considerable, which is still further confirmed by the cruelties they committed, as being, doubtless, thought necessary to awe, and to supply the want of number by terror. Besides, the ships at that period could not convey large armies to such a distance.

It is not only believed that America was peopled at the expense of Europe, but also at the expense of the unfortunate inhabitants of the country, the race of whom has been thought to be almost annihilated. Spain would thus have expiated the crimes she committed in the new world, by the calamities she suffered at home. But both the crimes and the punishment are imaginary; with the exception of the first cruelties committed at the moment of conquest, and inseparable from that kind of expeditions, never was the lot of the Indians so mild as it has long been under the Spanish government, and, what will

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no doubt appear more extraordinary, never were they so numerous *. They were slaves, oppressed by the kings of the country; they are now free, protected and happy under the dominion of their conquerors; even the laws are so favourable to them, that it is allowed by all enlightened travellers that

* In a recent publication, it is said, that in the enumeration of the inhabitants of Peru, made by the Archbishop of Lima, Fray Geronimo de Loaysa, in the year 1551, the Indians amounted to 8,285,000. A fact like this must afflict those who are aware that in 1793, in the very accurate calculation made by command of the Viceroy Gil Lemos, the Indians of Peru, in its present state, Chili and Buenos Ayres being separated, did not exceed 600,000 individuals. Here then are 7,600,000 Indians whom we may suppose to have been swept from the face of the earth; but happily the assertion of the Peruvian author proved to be completely false; for in consequence of the careful researches of Father Cisneros in the archives of Lima, it was found that the existence of the eight millions in 1551, was not supported by any historical document: but, on the contrary, it was discovered in the archives of the sixteenth century, that the Viceroy Toledo, justly regarded as the Spanish legislator of Peru, calculated, in 1575, in the visits which he made in almost the whole extent of the kingdom, only about 1,500,000 Indians. (*Note taken from M. de Humboldt's work, lib. ii. cap. 4, p. 55.*)

they tend to keep them in a state of idleness and puerility to which they are but too much inclined, and from which they might be in some degree roused by a severer government *. The working of the mines, against which so much clamour has been raised, has for a great while been brought to such perfection, that the number of deaths is not greater among the miners than in any other employment †. Besides, this occupation is entirely voluntary on the part of the Indians, and out of a population of 6,000,000 of natives there are scarcely 30,000 engaged in it. Such, how-

* M. de Humboldt, lib. 2.; De Pons, *Voyage de la Terre-ferme*, tome I. See in Robertson and the Spanish writers all the laws in favour of the Indians, and the zeal of the bishops in enforcing them.

† In the kingdom of New Spain, at least within thirty or forty years, the working of the mines is a free labour; not a trace of the *mita* exists there, though a justly celebrated author, Robertson, has advanced the contrary: in no part of the world do the lower people more fully enjoy the fruit of their labour than in Mexico for working the mines. There is no law to compel the labourers to undertake this kind of work, or to restrict them to a particular mine. If a miner is dissatisfied with the proprietor of one mine, he leaves him and offers his services to another,

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ever, are the grounds on which rest all the sentimental declamations of the last century; such was the ignorance or treachery of certain writers who, becoming enemies of their country through philanthropy, deprived France of her colonies, and robbed her of a revenue of sixty millions nett, her navy and commercial fleets, and the most natural means of struggling against the power of England.

If it be at least doubtful that the discovery of America was injurious to the population of Spain, it is not less so that it put an end to its industry, and plunged its inhabitants into despondence and indolence, by the increase of specie, and an abundance of the precious metals. The view we have given of the state of the

who pays more regularly or in ready money. Another mistake is, that of supposing that the working of the mines absorbs and reduces the population. In the whole kingdom of New Spain there are not more 28 or 30,000 miners, and deaths are not more frequent among them than among the other inhabitants; this is proved by the list of mortality drawn up in the parishes of Guanakuato and Zacatecas. *(Note likewise taken from M. de Humboldt's Work, lib. ii. cap. 5, p. 73.*

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commerce and agriculture of Spain in former times, would alone be enough to prove that this notion is as little founded. If any thing could, on the contrary, rouse the Spaniards from their loved indolence, it was the discovery of a new continent, which providing a prompter allurement to speculations, opened a new career to all adventurers, and taught them that the advantages of commerce and property are greater than those of a military or wandering life.

The Spanish possessions in the new world ought not to be called colonies: those immense domains are in some sort integral parts of the mother country. The monarchy is thus divided into two parts, governed by the same laws, containing a population nearly equal, and both tending to increase their inhabitants rapidly in a progression proportionate to the extent of their territory. Nothing can be more like the ancient system of the Roman empire in its colonies than the Spanish and Portuguese establishments in America. These new nations united with their countrymen

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by the bonds of religion, loyalty, and habit, have nevertheless a distinct and equally complete social organization. They have their clergy, their nobles, their tradesmen, and the natives, who are the common people. Their incomes do not consist, as is generally believed, in the produce of the mines alone, but in the excessive fertility of the soil, a source of wealth no doubt more valuable, as it is not liable to be exhausted, and as it may increase infinitely; they consist of the exclusive possession of cocoa, tobacco, cochineal, ginger, Jesuits' bark, all the woods used in medicine or dying, all the precious balms, innumerable herds of wild bullocks, mules, horses, vicunas, in short in the union of all the productions of Europe with those of the tropics.

Where is the country that can even approach such wealth? Is it France? Her possessions are confined to a few islands, the most important of which she has to recover. Is it Holland? The balance of her trade does not exceed fifteen millions. Nay, is it England? Her colonial power

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is entirely of a different nature, and is not embodied with her; it is not on the soil that it depends: counterparts of the mother-country, combinations like her of industry, the English settlements are rather counting-houses than colonies; they are the means of entrepots for a manufacturing and commercial people, whose only object in increase of dominion is increase of business, and who, possessed of capitals and engaged in turning them to advantage, seek no better basis for their power. The nations they have rendered tributary in India do not become their subjects, and the persons sent out to govern them scorn to think of settling among them as a home. Ever since England lost the American provinces she has been still more afraid of fixing disloyal branches at a distance, and seeks only to maintain her singular organization, that phenomenon in commerce, politics and legislation.

Spain alone seems to have in view an immense futurity, *Latis audax Hispania terris**. She traces the limits of new king-

* Tibullus, lib. IV. carm. 1, v. 137.

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doms in the deserts of a new world; the steps of the wandering traveller or of the imprudent missionary daily mark her conquests, and prepare new riches for her children: the untouched and fertile land scarcely requires cultivation to yield every fruit: it was that land which formerly made Seville the entrepot of the commerce of the world, taking it from Venice and from Genoa; it was that land which allowed Charles V. and Philip II. to undertake all the wars which they sustained during their long reigns; the rebellion of the Low Countries alone cost the latter monarch upwards of five hundred millions of livres, nearly twenty-one millions sterling: what sums must he not have sacrificed to maintain the troubles of the league in France, to fit out the fleets which gained the battle of Lepanto, and those that were destroyed with the name of the Invincible Armada; for the expeditions to the Milanese, to the kingdom of Naples, to the coast of Africa; for the expenses of sixty fortified towns, nine sea-ports, twenty-five arsenals, as many palaces, and the Escu-

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rial, which alone cost sixty millions of livres, 2,500,000*l.* sterling? Whence could this monarch have derived the means of meeting such expenses? Was it from Germany? the imperial crown had just passed into another branch of his family: from the Low Countries? he was at war with them: from Italy? it could hardly pay its garrisons: from Spain itself? it was exhausted; and besides, to obtain subsidies, the consent of the states was necessary. All those expenses were defrayed by America alone*. By the books of the bank of Seville, it appears that from the year 1519 to 1620, it issued the sum of fifteen hundred millions of ducats, and five hundred which had not been entered on the books†. There is no remark-

* Spain, said Bocalini, is to Europe what the mouth is to the body; all goes into it, but nothing remains in it.

† One is frightened at adding up all the specie that was put into circulation from 1690 to 1800. The quantity coined at Mexico alone of gold and silver amounts to 1,298,217,472 piasters. What became of this enormous sum? What channel could it have followed? This it is very easy to determine. Except the little which remains in America for the use of the inhabitants, and which is made up by what is sent off in contraband, the rest of the cash

able event, no critical situation in the history of Spain, from Charles V. to Philip V. which does not manifest that the revenues from America have saved the monarchy, so clearly that the arrival of the galleons is become a proverb.

Would Charles V. or Philip II. have been less ambitious had America not been discovered? Would they have paid more attention to the happiness of the Spaniards? Would they not, on the contrary, have found themselves obliged to exact of them greater sacrifices to support their unfortunate enterprises? Would not Spain, instead of remaining in a stationary condition, have really declined to a degree from which it would have been difficult to recover herself? It was, on the contrary,

goes to Cadiz, spreads through Spain, passes into England and France to pay the balance on the commodities which Spain and her colonies take from those two countries; and, without stopping in England, runs away to India and China, where it is ingulphed never to appear again, being the annual tribute which luxury has doomed Europe to pay to Asia, till some unthought of revolution, by opening new channels of circulation, shall make the riches of the east flow back to the west.

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when she was compelled to share those possessions with rebellious subjects, become her rivals, that she began to be feeble and her provinces to despond. The Dutch, who knew that the sources of her power were in the new world, soon contended with her for them. In 1603 and and 1621, companies of merchants were formed, who dared to cope with the most powerful prince in Europe, and made Amsterdam the new entrepôt of the world. Taking advantage of all the faults of the Spaniards, and committing none, they enriched themselves at the expense of Spain*. America, far from having injured Spanish industry, has, on the contrary, ever encouraged it, by opening certain and constant vents for the productions of the manufactories by the advantages accruing to it from

* Has Holland been depopulated or impoverished since her connection with the colonies? Is it not, on the contrary, since that period that it has become an important state in Europe? The same may be said of Switzerland, which for four hundred years has suffered an annual emigration of its inhabitants sent into the service of the different princes of Europe; and it is the same with England and other countries that possess colonies.

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an exclusive trade*. It is to the wealth and increase of population in the two Indies that the provinces of Catalonia, Valencia, and Biscay, and the ports of Cadiz, Malaga, and Barcelona, have been indebted for their improvement and prosperity. The advocates of the contrary opinion go farther, and without troubling themselves to be convinced that the Spanish colonies have at present all the advantage without any disadvantage, that the produce of their mines have been increasing in an extraordinary progression for twenty years, that the emigration from Spain is confined to the agents of the government, that, without reckoning forty millions which they pour into the treasury free of all expence, they contribute greatly to the king's revenue by the custom-houses and the circulation of specie; in spite of

* Wages are still too high in Spain, industry too little improved, and, above all, the custom-house duties too considerable, to allow of any competition in manufactures with other nations, if the trade were to cease being exclusive. The only excitement in that case to mercantile connections would be habit and fidelity.

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all these considerations, I say, they seriously pretend that a *sound philosophy* and the knowledge of her real interest should induce Spain to separate from her colonies, and declare them independent, *confining themselves*, say they, *to keeping up an amicable intercourse with them.*

It is not an object of this work to enquire what the state of Spain would be, separate from her colonies; or what would be the fate of her colonies under a government independent of the mother-country; the latter question has been fully treated by the eloquent writer of the *Three Ages of the Colonies*, whose work acquires additional interest from the present situation of things. The author, supposing colonies in general independent from the moment they could become so, and that that period was arrived, has endeavoured to find out the means of remedying an inevitable evil; but it does not follow from that, that he ever considered it as a good, at least in regard to the mother-countries. On the contrary, "Spain," says he*, "has always

* *Trois Ages des Colonies, tom I. p.* 113.

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"thought it of the utmost importance to "preserve an exclusive intercourse most "rigourously with those countries, the "sources of her own wealth as well as that "of Europe, the circulation of which she "maintains by the metals she provides for "it. England, on her part, has always "been desirous of a connection with some "portion of this opulent property, and "of turning towards herself the stream of "some of its rivers of silver*."

* Spain was formerly little known, although from the fifteenth century the events of its history have been constantly mixed with those of France, and though its possessions formed the half of the two hemispheres. Not to mention the philosophical writers, whose mistakes do not always arise from ignorance, there is in other authors, in respect to Spain, a singular levity, a want of investigation or accurate notions not correspondent with the other parts of their works. Montesquieu himself appears always to have had erroneous or superficial information respecting this country. He sets out with denying the existence of its gold and silver mines under the Romans (*Spirit of Laws, lib.* 21, *c.* 11.), though every traveller in Spain would have informed him that the galleries of the mines worked by the Romans, and since then by the Arabs, prove their importance, and are entirely conformable to the traditions given in authors. The Visigothic code, which it would be difficult not to admire, he scorns to make known:

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The separation of the colonies from the mother-country is very uncertain; but sup-

"These laws," says he, "are puerile, silly, idiotic; they do not attain their object, but are theoretical and without sense, frivolous in reality, and gigantic in style." (*Spirit of Laws, lib.* 28, *c.* 2.) So violent a criticism seems to me to have required a more detailed explanation. The faults imputed to modern Spain are still greater, and Montesquieu lets no occasion slip of multiplying them. After repeating the trite stories of the cruelties which the Spaniards are said to have committed in America, he thus deduces the consequences of them: "Since the devastation "of America," says he, "the Spaniards who took place "of its ancient inhabitants have not been able to re-people "it; on the contrary, by a fatality, which I might better "call divine justice, the destroyers are destroying them-"selves and daily consuming away." (*Persian Letters.*) We have shown how little founded this opinion is; that which attributes the ruin of Spain to the discovery of the new world is still less so, as we think we have equally proved. Besides, the reasons employed by that illustrious writer to demonstrate it, are weaker than many others that have been advanced by Spanish authors, which nevertheless did not decide the question in their favour. To have given any weight to the positions laid down by Montesquieu, it would have been necessary to prove, 1st. that the produce of the mines did not increase, whereas it has constantly increased for sixty years past; 2dly, that all the specie coined remained in Europe, so as to diminish in current value by increasing in quantity, whereas the prodigious efflux of it annually to the East Indies and China

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posing that it were to take place, the consequences which would result from it, depend upon the nature of the separation. If it be not entirely hostile on either side, it would not be entirely injurious. The advantages which Spain derives and may hope to derive from her colonies, do not rest altogether on the tributes which they

tends to maintain nearly the same equilibrium between the medium of wealth and other productions, and to establish a balance in favour of the advancement of the mines, augmented by the diminution of the expences of working them; 3dly, that agriculture and population were injured by the emigration to America, whereas long before Montesquieu wrote that emigration had ceased, and Spain owed her improvement or decline entirely to herself. Montesquieu likewise expresses himself thus: "I have sometimes heard "the blindness of the council of Francis I. deplored for "repulsing Christopher Columbus, who proposed America to them. In truth, they did, perhaps through impru- "dence, a very wise thing. Spain has acted like that "foolish king who requested that whatever he touched "might be turned into gold; but who was obliged to repair "again to the gods to supplicate them to put an end to his "misery." (*Spirit of Laws*, *b.* 21, *ch.* 22.) I do not think that Spain will ever have cause to express similar sorrow, and renounce her advantages; but if it should be the case, I pray to Heaven to bestow a part of her leavings on my country.

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pay her, but likewise on the objects which they consume, and on the works which they encourage: now, in respect to commerce, there exist between the Spanish colonies and the mother-country the close ties which are drawn by the same religion, the same language, the same character, and the same origin; and the Spaniards do not easily renounce such ties*.

The second cause to which the depopulation and defective industry of Spain are imputed, is the establishment of the Inquisition. Here too it is necessary to go back to the origin of things. It has been always the fashion to see in the Inquisition an institution devised by fanatic priests to persecute the people, or by suspicious nobles to enforce their authority over their vassals, or by a weak government to augment its power: we forget that at that pe-

* The commerce of America once centered exclusively in Cadiz, but it has been opened to the other ports of Spain. Cadiz, however, continues to carry on a great part of the business it had, and preserves all its correspondents: it will be the same with Spain in general in respect to the other countries of Europe.

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riod every class of men was also fanatic, and that the priests were less so than others, being more enlightened; that this institution, established by the pope alone in 1205, and adopted in Spain in 1478, could not but have displeased the clergy in general, as it took away part of their functions to confine them to the monks of St. Dominic; that the nobles, already possessed of complete power over their vassals, had no occasion for any indirect means to enforce their authority, and that on the contrary they lost their seignorial jurisdiction over them in consequence of it. With respect to the kings, nothing could more diminish their power, previously so limited, as increasing that of the clergy, of whom they had frequently cause to be jealous. The Inquisition was not established with any of these views, and had not in its origin such importance; it was an institution purely relative, and a means adopted for effecting more easily the odious measure, the consequences of which we have fully deplored; I mean the expulsion of the Jews and Moors, or the conversion

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of those who remained. A tribunal was then established, specially commissioned to attend to the execution of that law; but this cruel office had no effect on the catholic subjects, on the nobles, artizans, in short, on the mass of the Spanish nation. We have only to read, in the archives of the order of St. Dominic and the histories of the Inquisition, the names of the persons condemned in the different autos-da-fe, to be convinced that they were all what were then called *new christians*, *half christians*, or *part christians*, which meant baptized Jews, and relations or connections of Jews and Moors. So true is this, that there was an end to the persecutions altogether, when in the succeeding generations of these people not a trace remained of the belief of their fathers. The Inquisition, in fact and right, could not take cognizance of any other offence. *Inquisitores non possunt se intermittere in aliis causis quam in delectis contra fidem**.

No doubt some vindictive acts were

* *Clem. de Hæres, cap. mult. prim. parag. propter.*

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committed under this pretext, and some Spanish names are found on those horrible lists; but it was only at the period when the doctrines of Luther and Calvin set all Europe into flames, and had also made proselytes in Spain. The Inquisition then included the Spaniards in the number of its victims. I do not mean to excuse its cruelties; they were atrocious, but not numerous, nor ever exercised without warning. If anywhere innovations in religion could be considered as criminal, it was no doubt in Spain, where the government had always been in a manner theocratic, where the catholic religion was the fundamental law of the state, and where, long before Luther was born, the Inquisition was established, in order to prevent every kind of schism or dissenting whatever. It must be allowed, that the Spanish government was cruel and intolerant in this respect, but it was never treacherous: we do not see in its history that jumble of caprice and wavering, of toleration in words and persecution in acts, of paternal edicts and tardy REVOCATIONS, which destroy all the

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benefit of them; we do not see among the victims of superstition the names of a Henry IV. or of a Coligny. Spain seemed early to have foreseen all the evils that would spring from irresolute measures on so important a point; she adopted a fixt plan, which she declared openly, and which, far from injuring the progress of her population, was, on the contrary, favourable to it, by keeping her out of the religious wars which desolated Germany and France after the Reformation, and with which England is still afflicted*. This unity of worship and belief has contributed more than is thought to consolidate all the Spaniards in both hemispheres into a single uniform nation, one homogeneous mass of men having the same ties, the same character, and the same will.

* The author surely means wars of words, or he must be ignorant; one would be sorry to think that an ingenuous man should be guilty of such a paltry insincerity to deceive his countrymen into an idea of the peace of England being disturbed by any actual religious war. The author's words are, "en lui evitant les guerres de religion qui ont désolé "l'Allemagne et la France depuis la reforme, et qui affli-"gent encore aujourd'hui l'Angleterre."—TRANSLATOR.

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It is equally false that the Inquisition has impeded the progress of the sciences and literature in Spain. The epoch of the institution of that tribunal, in 1478, in the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella, was precisely the period of the revival of letters. The reigns of Charles V. Philip II. and Philip III. during which the sciences attained the highest degree of splendour, in which the Spanish language and literature prevailed in Europe, are those which are the most remarkable for the ravages of the Inquisition, those in which it destroyed upwards of 80,000 persons in the Low Countries, and a considerable number in Spain. On the contrary, its influence ceased at the juncture of the decline of letters, and of all the branches of the administration under the last princes of the house of Austria.

It was from this period, at which, according to all authors, the influence of the Inquisition appears to have ceased, that I think it became really injurious to the expansion of all useful knowledge; not, certainly, because it ceased to be cruel, but

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because it changed its nature and acquired new powers.

When the race of the Moors and of the Jews became extinct in Spain, when religious quarrels seemed at an end in Europe, the Inquisition still retained its organization, was still composed of the most distinguished persons of the nobility and clergy, and observed the same forms in its proceedings, but had no more occasion for the exercise of its ministry. The members of it then thought that the only means of maintaining its power was to unite it with that of the throne, and to support it by that sceptre which it had a little before threatened to break*. They persuaded the princes, that as it had been serviceable to religion against schismatics, it might also be serviceable to the state against factions. They pointed out to them that new dangers had arisen around them against which new preservatives were necessary, and that the liberty of the press, which pre-

* The grand inquisitor upbraided Philip III. violently for being affected at an auto-da-fé.

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vailed every where, was no less alarming than that of worship.

This opinion for which there might have been some foundation in other countries, had not any in Spain, neither the organization of which, nor the characters of the people, contained the elements of a revolution. Yet the nature of the books that were printed in foreign countries gave an appearance of truth to this reasoning, and caused it to be favourably received. In fact, there are few works on political economy, on commerce, or even on agriculture, written during the last sixty years, which do not contain some digressions upon the nature of governments, the principles of public law, and the law of nations, and particularly on those moral views to which the name of liberal ideas has been given, and which the Inquisition called dangerous ideas. Spain, at this period, was no longer superior to Europe for its learning; France and England had gone beyond it, and it could no longer hope to equal other nations but by imitating them. Hence arose that general desire of every class of

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society to become acquainted with new inventions, to participate in the improvements of all kinds which had taken place in Europe, and in short to read and comment upon foreign works. From the fear of the evil that these writings might produce, the Inquisition thought it better to deprive the country of the advantage attached to them; they prohibited most of the foreign books, and raised a great many impediments to the obtaining of others. Instead of the obscure names which filled the lists of the auto-da-fé, those of Montesquieu, Smith, and Robertson, were seen at the head of their literary proscriptions. The Spaniards then continued behind-hand with their neighbours, though perpetually anxious to give and receive instruction. Proud of their immense possessions in the two worlds, and humbled by their political degradation in Europe, they seemed fettered by the narrow spirit of their laws, and lost in the extent of their dominions. Envious of other nations, of whom formerly they would only have been jealous, they were seen struggling between emula-

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tion, which excited them to attempt every kind of industry, and local difficulties, which prevented them from arriving at perfection in any. Several, exasperated by this new kind of persecution, even went beyond truth in their systems, and the only country in Europe where religion is uniformly uniform and the monarchy absolute, is perhaps that in which there are most atheists and demagogues amongst the enlightened part of society.

If Spain was not able to raise itself to an eminent degree of splendour and wealth during the reigns of such distinguished princes as Ferdinand, Charles V. and Philip II. what was to become of it under a succession of weak and incapable kings, such as Philip III. Philip IV. and Charles II. At the conclusion of the reign of the last king it had fallen into such a state of languor, that the potentates of Europe impatiently waited for its spoliation, and had already signed a treaty of partition to share it, when the death of Charles II. brought to light a will in favour of the grandsons of Louis XIV. and in which it was stipu-

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lated that its territory should be preserved entire.

Louis XIV accepted this gift with the difficult task of defending it. Philip V. was at first received with enthusiasm, and for some time reigned tranquilly; but the storm soon collected from every point over his head. The reverses which Louis XIV. experienced were principally felt by his grandson, who, obliged to leave his capital and to retire to Burgos, was indebted solely to his perseverance and the talents of some of his generals for his throne to which he returned, and which was formally confirmed to him by the treaty of Utrecht.

It is from this celebrated era in the History of Spain that we are to date the prosperity of that kingdom, which a combination of circumstances then placed in the situation most adapted to it, as well for improvement at home as peace abroad. Bound in interest with France, its eternal rival, it had no longer continual wars to fear, nor any thing that could retard the progress of its industry. The politics of Europe were changed, and that ambition

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of universal monarchy which had passed from the princes of the house of Austria to Louis XIV. at last gave place to the ideas of a balance of power, which could more lastingly ensure the tranquillity of states and diminish the sources of war. Already had the treaty of Westphalia proved that political legislation was in a state of improvement as well as social legislation. That of Utrecht, still more temperate, was particularly favourable to Spain, securing to her the integrity of her territory, and her colonies, the true source of riches when their industry is combined with that of the mother-country. The government, placed in the middle of this exchange of productions, of this circulation of revenue between the two worlds, profiting by the advantages which it drew from both, encouraging one by the other, saw the number of its subjects and the mass of its wealth increase, without having any occasion for address in its politics, strength in its armies, or genius in its administration. It owed it success neither to profound combinations, nor to the decline of

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its neighbours, but to the nature of things, which tends always to good, when it is not thwarted, when a corrupt organization of the state does not raise continual obstacles to its improvement. What rapid changes did not Spain experience in that happy century! In less than eighty years its population doubled itself; the sums of money expended in consequence of the wars of the succession remained in the country; the energy which it had produced had formed soldiers; and at the same time the revenues of the state were trebled, and a formidable army of 100,000 men assembled; the arsenals were filled with workmen, seventy ships of the line were built in a short time, the genius of Louis XIV. seemed to hover over this new empire and to promote its restoration. Towards the end of the reign of Philip V. Spain became important in a military point of view. What was deficient in this reign was completed in the following; Ferdinand VI. restored order in the finances, encouraged the arts, and founded patriotic societies for the improvement of agriculture; and

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Charles III, whose government at Naples had already predicted what he would perform upon a larger theatre, surpassed his predecessors. The edict of free commerce with America multiplied the connections with that country, and spread the advantages of industry and activity over all the kingdom; roads were opened in the principal provinces, canals were commenced, the manufactures shook off the yoke of foreigners, the arts and sciences, which always find a home in tranquil countries, fixed themselves in this; and the Spaniards were soon seen to follow the French in every useful and hazardous undertaking. Condamine was not long in finding such men as Don Georges Juan and Don Antonio Ulloa, as companions of his travels. It was a Spaniard who returned alone from California, and published the observations of the unfortunate Chappe. Does learning display more brilliant names in Europe than those of Bayer, Mayans, Sarmiento, Flores, Feijoo, and Isla? or philosophy and political economy, better works than those of Campo Manes and Jovellanos? This

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expansion of every faculty, this encouragement of every talent, was felt beyond the seas. The Spanish possessions in America surpassed the mother-country in the increase of their riches and prosperity. The annual produce of the mines rose from five millions of piastres to thirty-five millions, by the excellent administration of Galvez, and of those who accompanied him; but still these revenues, as uncertain as brilliant, have not improved so much as agriculture, a more lasting basis, and upon which the future gigantic prospects of this country are founded; the progress which it made has spread amongst all classes of the inhabitants that happiness which mild laws have for a long time been preparing. We have seen above with what astonishing rapidity population increases; one scourge alone retarded its progress; a considerable number of people were annually carried off by the small-pox, principally among the Indian casts. This misfortune is no longer to be dreaded; a philanthropic expedition has lately been

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sent out to remedy it for ever; two frigates have taken to the countries of gold, a treasure more precious than that which it possesses, twenty children, some of whom had previous to their being embarked received the vaccine principle, which was communicated to the others during the voyage, that it might be preserved in all its freshness; an ingenious idea and worthy of the Spanish character. As soon as intelligence of the arrival of the frigates was spread in the country, the Indians descended from their mountains on all sides; the bishop of Vera Cruz, attended by his clergy, went to the shore to receive this precious charge; he took one of the children in his arms and raising it to heaven, addressed a prayer to God, amidst the acclamations of the crowded beach: blessings of a holy religion and a paternal monarch, what an affecting scene did you present upon this distant land!

Spain undoubtedly increased in wealth and prosperity during the eighteenth century. The descendants of Louis XIV. have

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restored this kingdom to the political situation which must be favourable to it; they have brought forward part of its means of industry; they have restored the arts and sciences to it, but they have still left fetters remaining that prevent a complete amelioration: though wise enough to reform abuses, they were not perhaps sufficiently powerful to abolish laws or change habits, equally injurious to the increase of industry. The greatest part of the lands of the kingdom, entailed on the families of the nobility or belonging to religious corporations, remains uncultivated, and the little that is alienable is sold above its value, on account of the difficulty of obtaining it. The want of communication among the provinces, obstructs the inland commerce, and causes scarcity in some, while there is a superfluous abundance in others; the deficiency of highways and cross-roads is also injurious to foreign commerce. Corn brought from the United States to Cadiz in neutral vessels and re-exported under a Spanish name to South America, is cheaper

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in that country than the Spanish corn sent directly from its own ports, notwithstanding the risks of the double passage. The case is the same with manufactures: the productions of the national or foreign manufactories exported on the national account are so overburthened with duties at entering and clearing, and fetch such a price in America, that smuggling is in a manner solicited, and the advantages of the exclusive trade rendered null. The direct taxes are not less heavy upon agriculture, though they return little or nothing to the Treasury. The revenues of the Alcabala and the Almoxarifazgo, as barbarous as their names and as the times in which they were devised, produce very little, and are very expensive in collecting; the tax of Crusade bulls founded on puerilities and unworthy of a true religion and of a wise government, diminishes daily as the country becomes more enlightened, or as the administration relaxes. We have seen before to what a degree indolence still prevails. In short, the country which

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furnishes Europe with all its specie is overburthened with a paper of no credit, without value and without security; the melancholy sign and more melancholy pledge of a considerable debt.

To remedy these serious evils requires a union of courage, genius, and activity: with these the happiest changes may be effected, and Spain may resume alone the rank which she formerly occupied in Europe only by the assistance of its other states.

It must not be dissembled, that Spain is too fertile and its population is too thin, to think of any thing but extending its agriculture, the chief source of all wealth. It will soon become a manufacturing nation, when a greater abundance of productions shall have increased the population and rendered labour cheaper. As the taxes may then be collected on the spot, there will no longer be occasion to clog industry so much by custom-houses, and there will be less to fear from the competition of foreign merchandise; but it is ne-

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cessary to begin the edifice at its foundation.

Almost all Spain is the unalienable property of the Lords, of the religious corporations, or of the commons; nothing can dismember their domains, while entails, alliances, or bequests are continually increasing them. The little land which is, as it were, in circulation, is neither sufficient for the investment of the capitals made by commerce, nor for the industry of individuals of small property, who are desirous of commencing their fortune in that way, or of realising that which they have acquired. Thus society is entirely composed of usufructuaries, proprietors, or farmers, but all equally indifferent; the first because they have no power to transmit their fortune, the others because they never can acquire the property. The lords inhabit the towns and pay no manner of attention to their estates; the convents spend their revenues in alms and in free gifts to the king; the commons build cathedrals, and the tenants of each, having for the most part leases of only three or

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four years, endeavour speedily to make the most of the land without attempting to improve it: whole fields remain fallow solely because they form part of these gigantic accumulations. Such are the reasons of the solicitation long made for the abolition, or at least restriction, of the civil and religious rights of succession. They are so considerable in Spain, and swallow up such an immense quantity of land, that there is no reason to fear that the consequence will be too great a division of property, as took place in France after the law of the seventeenth Nivose; there would be besides other means of remedying this abuse, if it were to be feared; or, if it were thought proper to preserve a certain number of these rights, it might be by allowing the rich proprietors to let out their lands upon leases of eighteen years, to be binding on their heirs, or to grant very long leases, which would have the double advantage of preserving the property in a family, while it gives a long term of enjoyment to others. By wise laws these neglected lands might become cultivated;

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so however as not to destroy inheritances too much, or tend to impoverish distinguished families, whom it is of consequence to the state to preserve in a situation suitable to their name. Besides the prosperity which this measure would spread over the country by the improvement of agriculture, it would employ on the land the capitals which remain dead in the hands of individuals of small property, and those of the rich, who purchase public paper with them, or invest them in foreign banks. By thus increasing the number of little landholders, all those who may hope to acquire easy circumstances by it, or at least to gain some future profit, would be included in and sensible of the value of labour. The land-tax would soon be established on a firm footing, and meanwhile it would furnish a considerable augmentation in the *alcabala* on sales, the return of which is the fourteenth of real property, but which, from the deficiency of conveyances, returns almost nothing. The other important changes in the laws would be respecting the courts of justice, the civil

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and criminal codes, the administration of the forest laws, the privileges of the *Mesta*, the regulations of the police, the system of taxation, and the drawing for the militia; in all of which the organization is still very imperfect in Spain.

The most important object of the administration would be without doubt, the consolidation and progressive extinction of the national debt by the sale of a part of ecclesiastical property. This which succeeded in Naples would be still more easily effected in Spain, where it would not be so novel. It was adopted some years back by Charles IV. under the authority of the Pope, and its success would have been complete if it had been executed on a greater scale, and if the money poured into the sinking fund (*caxa de consolidacion*) had been faithfully employed in paying off the royal *Vales*; but scarcely had this fund been created when the wants of the state caused it to be put to other uses. The buying up of the public debt ceased at the moment of the last declaration of war against England. The funds which were

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intended for that purpose were then demanded by the public treasury for the current expences, as an advance to be paid to that fund on a peace; but, instead of advancing this sum, the directors of the consolidated fund undertook to defray the expences of the treasury, which at the same time burdened that fund with a part of its returns. The directors thus became in fact the ministers of finance, and the nature of the institution was changed, or at least the object of it deferred to a future time. This operation has been of no other use than to show how easy it was. The property of the reformed convents, and that of the other pious establishments, have been sold at the same rate as patrimonial property, that is to say, at a discount of forty and forty-five per cent, which would nevertheless give a revenue of four per cent. on the capital, on account of the depreciation of the *Vales*, which were taken in payment. Supposing that sufficient landed property were put up to sale for paying off the national debt, that debt is

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so inconsiderable for the country *, there exists such a demand for land, and, in spite of the received opinion, so great a quantity of capital† to be invested, that the value of landed property would not be reduced by it. On the other hand, the living of the monks would not in any way be hurt by it; because their order has for a long time been in fact suppressed, as they are not allowed to receive any more novices; and being paid three per cent. for the capital arising from the sale of their estates, the sum exceeds the revenues which they drew from them annually. This suppression, besides was effected with great management in Spain‡, though it might have been more easily done at once on good grounds than in any

* See Vol. IV. article Finances.

† There is in Spain a great deal of capital lying dead in the hands of the citizens and country people. The inability of the possessors to make use of it prevented the circulation.

‡ They began by uniting in a single house the monks of several convents of the same order, and they proposed to suppress several entirely.

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other country. In fact, the *Cortés* have at all times opposed the alienation of landed property in favour of the convents*, and have never sanctioned it: this is generally known by all classes in Spain, and removes all scruples on this head.

The funds arising from the sale of the convents would not only be useful for the securing and paying the national debt, but also for those important improvements from which all others spring, and which were only begun in the preceding reigns, such as roads, canals, public granaries (*positos*) the ports &c. on which would be employed that crowd of idle, dangerous men, who could not immediately find employment in tillage, and who find it difficult to fix themselves to that kind of hard and continual labour. What the government would do for the general welfare of the state and for the works which require considerable capitals, the administration of the provinces should do for their own par-

* See on this subject the article of Agriculture, p. 190, Vol. IV.

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ticular amelioration; they would find considerable resources in local taxes, and in a better use of the property of the commons; these changes would scarcely take place when confidence would revive on all parts, and with it the expansion of every faculty, and the spring of useful enterprises. The system of taxation would become less burdensome and more profitable, in short the *Vales*, without its being necessary perhaps to buy up the fourth part of them, would rise with the same rapidity as the three per cents in France did, and would, like that, be a light debt, scarcely sufficient for the investment of the money of minors, batchelors, and men whose middling fortune would be ruined in purchasing landed property, and who prefer a larger income when they think it so secure.

The Spaniard is distrustful and reserved, his wariness is of long continuance, but when once overcome, when he thinks that he discovers in his superiors, and even in his equals, the loyal and generous qualities which form the basis of his own character, he passes to the opposite extreme, and his

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confidence, like his attachment, has no bounds. This is a tribute which gratitude, as well as truth, calls upon me to pay*.

It now remains to examine the third

* It was the confidence with which my father inspired the Spaniards, that enabled him to render the state some important services. I shall only mention one circumstance: The Marquis d'Aubeterre, the French ambassador in Spain, had been commissioned in 1758, to solicit from Ferdinand IV. a loan of 30 millions: he had delivered a letter to that prince from the king of France on this subject, and had had the mortification of meeting with a refusal. The necessities of the state becoming more urgent, the king sent my father, then very young, to Madrid, to try and renew this negotiation. After many difficulties, he received the following answer from Count Valdeparaiso: "I know that you are a good servant of his Most Christian "Majesty: I know your heart and its nobleness; you are "my friend, and I have done on every occasion what you "have asked of me. The refusal of the loan of money, "on the part of my master, may disoblige his Most Christian Majesty: you are attached to his interest, but you "are also attached to a good understanding between the "two courts. Thinking thus, and knowing your wisdom, "I must not keep you any longer in suspense. We shall "not grant his Most Christian Majesty the loan of 30 "million livres which you demand; but I will lend you, "personally, two millions of piastres, which is one-third "of that sum. The conditions and time of payment shall "be arranged to your satisfaction; we will treat by cor-

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means which the government possesses; I mean its influence.

It is not only bad laws, but bad habits that impede the prosperity of empires; and though the power of sovereigns can change the former, their influence alone can have weight on the latter; it is that which gives a new direction to men, and points their emulation to the kind of merit which is adapted to his views. When the kings had reason to fear the nobles, it was their policy to fix them at their court, neutralize them by honours, offices, and pleasures; but as soon as their throne was secured by the progress of civilization, more even than by their rights, the welfare of the provinces called for those powerful men, who, by their riches, preponderance, and knowledge, are more formed to animate them than common agents, who were, besides, very few in number. It was by the attention of such men that England, France, Germany, and Italy, were embellished:

" respondence. You may depart as soon as you will; " for the English ambassador has his eyes upon you, and I " know is bent on discovering the object of your journey."

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the Spanish nobility lived alone in the towns, and seemed to have inherited from their fathers only their courage and their names: they looked with indifference on the estates taken from the Moors with the blood of their ancestors, and by that alone made sufficiently precious to their descendants. They had, however, a noble example before them in the members of the high-clergy, to whom their country is indebted for most of the churches, hospitals, roads, aqueducts, fountains, and other public establishments of their dioceses. I am delighted to repeat it, those respectable men have at all times set examples of philosophy and beneficence, as well as inculcated Christian morality: their estates are the best managed in Spain. It would have been the same throughout the country, if the nobility, instead of spending their fortunes at court, instead of contracting debts in the capital, had lived upon their estates, and had had, as in England, country meetings for laying out private roads, digging canals, making bridges, mills, hydraulic machines; for en-

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couraging plantations, meadows made by art, the different kinds of cultivation, the amelioration of the brute creation, and whatever requires the use of capitals and personal attention. Is it not extraordinary, that in the whole extent of Spain, there is not a single detached seat, a single considerable mansion, or a single villa in which we could suppose a lord of the country resides? The few edifices of that kind we meet with in the country are old towers, the ruins of which equally show the glory of their ancient and the negligence of their new masters. What can change such an ancient, such an inveterate habit, if it be not the influence of the head of the state, whose desires have frequently more force than the laws, and whose favour is more valuable than wealth? The country would then recover its natural protectors, the knowledge concentrated in the towns would extend to hamlets, improvements in agriculture and the the mechanical arts would supersede bad customs, and the convents, suppressed on account of the exigencies of the state,

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would be converted into asylums for the poor. What a source of good would be produced by all these changes, and, above all, by the admirable agreement between the head of the state, the proprietors, and the laborious class of the people; and between the country and the towns. The merchants and the manufacturers would then redouble their zeal to acquire lands, and to enjoy, as they grew old, a noble and happy life in their provinces. Idleness would no longer be either honourable or honoured; and Spain would attain that height and splendour to which it seems called by its situation, natural riches, and the distinguished qualities of its inhabitants. If within a century it has advanced in every thing we have mentioned, what would it not do if it were freed from the chains which confine it? Its population, which has more than doubled in less than a century, would augment in a still greater proportion; its revenues, which from 80 millions have risen to 240, would make a similar progress. It would be the same with industry and commerce, both of which

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have no other basis than agriculture and population. Its armies would be more disciplined, and its fleets more numerous, as the country became more populous, and the king richer. It would be no exaggeration to affirm, taking as a ground the proportion of the present increase and that which these happy changes must produce, that Spain might have in fifty years a population of 20 millions of inhabitants * on the Continent, 30 in its distant possessions †, 500 ‡ millions of revenue from the two worlds, and all the advantages which must accrue to a well governed people, from the beauty of the climate, the fertility of the soil, and a position every where unassailable.

* Its population, which was not more than six millions in 1720, had risen to 13 millions in 1797. It would then be 26 millions in 80 years, and at least 20 in 50, even allowing that the country made no improvement.

† See the progression of which we have spoken above, page lxv.

‡ By this I mean the revenues of the state produced by the taxes from all parts of the monarchy. I have only doubled those which exist, whereas they may be raised three and four-fold, according to the wealth of individuals, which must augment in an enormous proportion.

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Yes, I dare to predict it, the Spaniards will one day rise equal to the brilliant æras of their history; a new Trajan will be born within some of their walls*; another Hannibal will owe his successes to them †; they will carry to battle the names of Saguntum ‡, Numancia, the unconquered standard of the Cantabrians, and that steel which the Romans used to conquer the world §; the forests ** of Asturias converted into numerous fleets will again be the terror of the east ††; and, not less formidable to England than the *invincible armada*, they will not always have the elements

* Trajan was born at Italica, a town of Spain, near Seville.

† *Hispaniam bellatricem, Annibalis educatricem.* (Florus, lib. II. c. 6.)

‡ The names of Saguntum, Numancia, and Cantabria, are those of three Spanish regiments which have always distinguished themselves.

§ The Romans adopted the Spanish sword, the temper of which is superior to any other.

** The forests of Asturia and Galicia contain wood enough for the building of several considerable fleets.

†† The battle of Lepanto.

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against them *; the shade of the Cid will see from the top of his rock † harvests covering the uncultivated and uninhabited plains of his country, and his countrymen listening to his beloved ballad ‡, sung amidst orchards of fig-trees, pomegranates, and oranges, the branches of which, loaded with fruit, will be united with the vine, and at the foot of which there will grow cotton, flax, sugar-cane, and corn. Bœtica, celebrated by Homer and Fenelon, will again become the Elysium of fable, and the country of people happy in history. The vast countries of America, and those immense divisions which already bear the name of the provinces and towns of the mother-country, will be soon peopled, and a double nation, warlike, commercial, and agricultural, will, in either hemisphere be worthy of the heroes from whom they descend.

* Philip II. said, on hearing of the destruction of his fleet, "I did not send them to war with the elements."

† The Cid's rock, *pena del Cid*, in Andalusia.

‡ The ancient Romance of the Cid. A masterly translation of this curious and interesting work has lately been given to the English public by Mr. Southey.—T.

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It is with pain I repeat, that I have dared to present to the public a work written and printed with such haste; I have left it nearly as it was committed to paper on the very spots where it was written; but the cause of its faults may be an excuse for them. It would have taken me three years to execute this work tolerably, which it was necessary to finish in a few months. If I had delayed it, it would have been of no use. The works which relate to the laws, customs, and even manners of Spain, will soon be to that country what the ancient ordinances of war, the arrêts of parliament, and of the chamber of accounts, the liberties of the Gallic church, &c. are now to the French. Whatever may happen, bounds are now fixed between the past history of this country, and the future unknown events to which it is destined; and as the "Picturesque Travels through Spain" will describe the monuments, such as they have been preserved to this time, so I have endeavoured, in this work, to ascertain the state of the legislation and of the industry of the country before they experienced any

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change whatever. My design is, that these two works should illustrate each other, and that neither should encroach too much on what belongs to the other. Thus the details in the Itinerary of the public edifices, of the arts, sciences, and literature, will be little more than a simple nomenclature* in comparison to the expansion they will receive in the other work; whereas, all that relates to political economy, will appear simply as a sketch in the *Voyage Pittoresque*. The reader may convince himself of this by examining the province of Catalonia, the whole of which is published in the eleven first numbers of the large work: the description of Mont-Serrat, the antiquities of Tarragona, the abbey of Poblett, the mountain of Cardona, and the Arabic monuments of Gironna make almost three-

* The reader will find in this Itinerary a sketch of all the monuments of the arts, but given without criticism, and perhaps treated with too much indulgence. I have here considered the Spanish school independent of others: in the *Voyage Pittoresque*, I shall examine it comparatively with the works of other countries, and according to the strict rules of art.

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fourths of it, and are scarcely mentioned in this.

The form of the Itinerary appears to me to be the most methodical, and the most conformable to the taste of the generality of travellers. It is particularly convenient in a country, the face of which is hardly known, and of which there are only imperfect maps, such as those of Lopez, which, besides, are not to be procured. The atlas which accompanies this work has been composed for it, and taken from Lopez's maps, Tofino's charts of the coasts, Mechan's triangles in Catalonia, the kingdom of Valencia, and several points lately determined by M. de Humboldt. The maps are of the same size as the work, that they may be bound up with it if desired; but they are, however, on a larger scale than the maps of Spain by Mentelle and Lopez, in four sheets: they are by M. Lartigue, chart-maker to the navy, who is at work upon the large map for the *Voyage Pittoresque de l'Espagne*. I cannot be thankful enough to this modest artist, whose work would have been

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perfect, if he, like myself, had not been obliged to hasten it. I am happy to pay the same tribute to the other persons who have assisted me in my work, at the head of whom I shall place my respectable friend baron de Humboldt, who has had the goodness to communicate to me what relates to the finances of America, and to the geological part of Spain. I shall not attempt to praise this learned man, there is no praise that is not inadequate to his courage and talents, and he alone will dare to go again among people so barbarous as to be unacquainted with his name. I owe my information respecting Galicia and the Asturias to count de Marcillac, a Spanish officer, who has already published several works on the last wars in Spain. Not having been in the Balearic islands, the details concerning them are taken from the Travels of M. Grasset de S. Sauveur*; but I am most indebted to M. Carrere, a

* I may say the same with regard to some roads which I have not travelled, and which I have taken from the Spanish Journey by the abbé Pons, which has been of great service to me.

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physician of the academy of Montpellier, who died in Spain, where he had long resided. This estimable man has left information on different subjects, which has been of great service to me. The whole article of medicine, a part of those which concern the sciences and natural history are from him, as well as many other partial details.

As to the Spaniards, it would be too long to enumerate all the learned, obliging, and disinterested men whom I have met with in my travels: there was no place of the least importance where I did not find some one, and often several, perfectly well acquainted with every thing relative to the place he lived in, and sometimes with the whole province. Without having occasion for letters of introduction, I asked, on arriving, where the learned man of the place lived *(el hombre erudito del lugar)*, on which I was carried to some canon for historical information, or to the *boticario* (apothecary) for things relative to natural history, or to some merchant or lawyer for what relates to commerce and agriculture:

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the lawyers in Spain are in general well informed on these heads, from the habit they are in of deciding all disputes relative to them. I have also met among the nobility and high clergy men of the highest merit: all at first received me very coldly, and in a rough manner, waiting to discover my design, and who I was; but after half an hour's conversation they confided in me all that I could desire, and heaped attentions on me; my very curiosity becoming a title to their kindness. I have no where experienced that painful sensation, which appears to me to be the misery of travellers, and sometimes of those who receive them, that attendant upon saying to one's self, "It is useless to attach myself to this man, I shall never see him again."

Good Spaniards! who have thus heaped kindnesses on me without even looking for my gratitude, who have rendered these unhappy times so easy to me, may you in turn find some asylum amidst the troubles which rend your country! Alas! perhaps flames are about to consume those houses in which I have been received! Perhaps

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cannon are already destroying those monuments of your religion and history, of which you are so proud! Ah! may you yourselves, at least, escape these disasters, and soon recover a tranquil existence! You will then know that there are still comforts in life after great misfortunes, when we have preserved an upright heart, the esteem of our friends, and the love of our own country.

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OBSERVATIONS

UPON TRAVELLING IN GENERAL, AND PARTICULARLY IN SPAIN.

AMONGST the modes of employment which for thirty years have been supported by fashion, there is none perhaps more rational than the taste for travels, whether it be considered as a method of instruction, of re-establishing health, of diverting sorrow, or as the ambition of being useful and of promoting the sciences. It is singular that a custom which unites so many advantages, and pleasures was so little followed in the middle of the last century. If a history of the French travellers were to be written, the greatest part of them would be found to be missionaries and pilgrims, and the remainder merchants or naturalists; no man of the world and but few learned men passed the frontiers. The first persons who travelled through Switzerland spoke of it as of a discovery, and were looked upon on their return as extraordinary people. Almost all the travels written before that period treat only of laws, the etiquette of courts, and diplomatic negotiations; not a word as to the arts, the face of nature, astronomical and geological information, or even what concerns public and domestic economy. Several cir-

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cumstances have contributed to render the taste for travels in late times more general. The American war obliged a great number of Frenchmen to travel in the English provinces of that country, and made them desirous of becoming acquainted with the language and customs. The philosophical notions which were then broached, and the study of different branches of administration turned attention towards England, whose laws, customs, and improvements of all kinds were considered as models for adoption; on the other hand the taste for the arts, which was introduced into society towards the end of the reign of Louis XV. and the discovery of Herculaneum and Pompeia, created an eagerness to become acquainted with Italy and Greece; lastly, descriptive poetry, so much in fashion for these thirty years, unfolded the great beauties of nature, and made men sensible of their value. At that time a kind of enchantment spread itself over the monuments of antiquity, over those of the revival of the arts, and over the picturesque aspects of mountainous countries.

If new ideas encouraged travels, travels in their turn improved ideas; in the forms of edifices, in dress, furniture, pictures, they revived a purity of style, a polish which was for a long time lost; in works of literature they produced a fidelity of description, sometimes minute, but always interesting; they taught, particularly in more serious subjects, such as the laws and morals of nations, to seek truth and justice in every thing, without being prejudiced by national attachment or the vanity of ignorance. They showed that there is no people who have not from particular circumstances perfected something more than others, though perhaps they are behind other countries in every thing else. Hence men became more impartial in their opinions and judgments, and showed less pretensions in the intercourse of life.

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The taste for travelling was however too novel to spread at once into all countries, the knowledge of which was interesting. There sprung up in this respect, as in all customs at their commencement, a habit of imitation, a kind of routine that people were contented to follow. A line was laid down in Europe which was mechanically adopted by all travellers, according to the different reasons which induced them to go from home. Persons in ill health went to Nice, and Montpellier: the more enterprising to Pisa; naturalists followed the steps of M. de Saussure, travelled over the glaciers of Switzerland, and climbed to the summit of Mount Blanc; the amateurs of the arts traversed Italy by the post road, without reflecting that to the right and to the left, and in the interior of the Apennines, they passed by the most beautiful sites of nature, and the most curious monuments. Lastly, economists conceived that there was nothing to be learned out of the country of Smith and Arthur Young.

Hence it followed, that there were soon a hundred works descriptive of some countries, and none respecting those which were not included in the received list. Spain was for a long time amongst the latter, and not being on the road to any other country, it was neglected, and did not even enter into what the English call the *grand tour*, which lasts for two years, and which, in that country, forms a part of the education of the rich as much as rhetoric and philosophy.

It must be allowed, however, that no country in Europe united more advantages for every class of travellers than Spain. Those who went abroad for their health might have found in some province of this kingdom a mildness of climate perhaps no where else to be met with. I doubt whether any thing can be conceived equal to the soft and balsamic

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air which we breathe in winter in the plain of Valencia (Vega de Valencia), in those of Murcia, in the environs of Seville, and in some parts of Estremadura. I have bathed in the Betis, now the Guadalquivir, on the 20th of February. There are mineral springs in Spain, in greater number and of a better quality than are to be found in any other part of Europe. The greater part have never been analysed; but those that have and which are frequented, produce such effects, that they are the only remedies for complaints difficult to be treated elsewhere by the strongest drugs. They are found in all the provinces, but particularly in Andalusia. The fruits are superior in quality to any thing that can be conceived, and are more numerous than in any other part of the world; extraordinary cures have been performed entirely by the juice of sugar canes and dates. The climate is in general sufficiently mild, and the summers are perhaps not so hot as in some northern countries. Except the high plain of the Castiles and some parts of Andalusia, the country is either covered with mountains or situated upon the sea shore, and cooled by the east and north winds; besides none of those unwholesome airs prevail in it which are endemic in some countries, and which destroy every charm of them, such as the *Cavità aria* of the environs of Rome from Radicofani, on the road from that town to Naples; and the Calabrian fever, of which Virgil died, *Calabri rapuere*, and which still arrests the progress of population.

In what country will those who employ themselves in natural history find more interesting objects? Three-fourths of the mountains in Spain are composed of admirable marble and alabaster. In Catalonia alone there are 177 different kinds, without including the jasper of Tortosa. The green marble of Granada and the flesh coloured have a brilliancy to

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the eye and a fineness to the touch which rank them with the most beautiful oriental substances. Several of the provinces of Spain are still enriched by mines of gold and silver, red lead and quicksilver. A Flora and a herbal of this kingdom are desiderata, and no other country would afford such complete ones.

Those who are interested by the love of the arts, historical recollections, and the monuments of antiquity, may in Spain walk over the ruins of Saguntum, Numantia, Tarragona, and Merida; the theatre of the campaigns of Hannibal, the Scipios, and the unfortunate sons of Pompey; they may repose in the shade of the antique cypresses of the fountain of Sertorius, and read the name of *Optimus* in the inscriptions, in the native country of Trajan and Adrian. But the monuments which the Roman people left profusely in every part of the empire are not the only ones in Spain. A people less powerful though as celebrated, less known, though as worthy of being so, have left in this country perhaps the only monuments which exist of them in the world. The Arabs spent ages in embroidering, if I may use the expression, the walls of Granada and Cordova, and in completely clothing them with an assemblage of ornaments, the grace and lightness in the details of which are equal to the grandeur of the masses. While those voluptuous people ornamented in this manner, the baths and retired cabinets of their seraglios in the south, the Goths raised the dark and austere monuments of their religion in the north: forests of columns supporting pointed roofs, lighted by windows stained with glaring colours; immense iron gates, loaded with carved ornaments; and marble mausoleums casting long shadows upon funeral inscriptions, present another kind of monument, more solemn and more historical; at last the era of the revival of the arts in

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the age of the Medicis commenced in the reign of Charles V, and it may be supposed that Spain, which at that period was superior to the rest of Europe, was not inferior to it in this kind of glory. In fine, persons who delight in the knowledge of politics, laws and customs, will find in Spain a primitive people, whose character retains all its purity, and a fresh soil whose principle of vegetation is in full vigour. Half of this beautiful country still lies fallow; but the other half proves what it might be made. All its productions are of a remarkable quality: the corn only loses five parts in a hundred in grinding, while every where else it loses fifteen. The olives are twice as large as those of Provence, and would produce as good an oil, if the people knew how to make it well. The wines of Malaga, Xeres, and Alicant, are sufficiently known. The wools will long excite the admiration and jealousy of neighbouring nations. It is in Spain only that we meet with forests of palm trees without crossing the desert, and plantations of sugar canes without seeing slavery. As to social organization by means of a gradual unfolding, we shall not repeat what we have said above. An exalted destiny awaits Spain, and the improvements of every kind that it must one day experience, will render travels still more interesting and undoubtedly more commodious. The principal reasons that have hitherto kept travellers from Spain, are the numberless inconveniences which they experience in travelling through that country: there are few roads, the inns are bad, and the means of proceeding slow, dear, and incommodious. If these three inconveniences were remedied there is undoubtedly no country in which so much enjoyment of every kind is to be found. To go to it from France we pass through the most beautiful of the French provinces: on one side we travel along the banks of the

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Loire, on the other along those of the Rhone; we cross the Pyrenees by convenient and easy roads, without being obstructed by the tempests, the falling of the snow from Mount Cenis, the overflowing of the rivers of Piemont, &c. Those whom health carries to Barrege have only a few leagues to travel to pass the mildest winter on the other side of the Pyrenees. But for this purpose travelling must be easier. Meanwhile, till the country is organised as it ought to be, I shall give an idea of what it is, and of the different modes of travelling through it.

Manner of travelling in Spain.

There are no posts for carriages in Spain except only on the road from Madrid to Cadiz, and from Madrid to the different royal palaces. The project of the Count de Florida Blanca, to whom we are indebted for this establishment, was to place them upon all the grand communications of the kingdom. He also established a diligence from Bayonne to Madrid, in which travellers paid only 12 piastres and went this journey very quickly; but the demands of the coachmen and innkeepers, and particularly the loss which resulted to the royal chest, checked this kind of enterprise, and even put an end to what was already begun. The post from Madrid to Cadiz, and those to the royal palaces, nevertheless continue, and are a model for the other roads. We should have nothing to wish for in this respect if the communications were as good, and travellers as well served through the whole of Spain. Mules are employed on this road, and carriages are furnished to those who are in want of them: there are four-wheel carriages, chaises that hold two, and sulkies, or cabriolets, with room for only one. These carriages are of different kinds; some of them are handsomer and more convenient than others;

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these are called *distinguished*, and are charged at a higher rate. The following table of the charges of the posts from Madrid to the different royal palaces, will give an idea of the expences attending this manner of travelling.

From Madrid.	to the Pardo 1 League.		to Aranjuez and the Escurial 7 Leagues.		to Saint Ildefonso 26 Leagues.	
	reals of vellon.	sterling.	reals of vellon.	sterling.	reals of vellon.	sterling.
		s. d.		l. s. d.		l. s. d.
A *Tiro*, or six mules with your own carriage.	45	9 4½	294	3 1 3	616	6 8 4
Ditto with a post coach.	45	9 4½	336	3 10 0	700	7 5 10
Four mules.	39	8 1½	196	2 0 10	420	4 7 6
Two mules with a chaise for two people.	26	5 5	147	1 10 7½	308	3 4 2
Ditto, with a post chaise.	32	6 8	175	1 16 5½	364	3 15 10
Ditto, and a *distinguished* chaise.	36	7 6	189	1 19 4½	392	4 1 8
Mules with your own sulky.	20	4 2	98	1 0 5	210	2 3 9
Ditto, with a post sulky.	24	5 0	126	1 6 3	266	2 15 5
Ditto, and a *distinguished* sulky.	28	5 10	140	1 9 2	294	3 1 3

As to the road from Madrid to Cadiz, the following are the particulars relative to it. The post is obliged to carry two persons whose baggage does not exceed two hundred pounds weight, with two horses, and the price is four reals three quartillos or 11d 7-8ths a league for each horse; this, with two reals which it is customary to give the postillion, and four reals which is the charge for a carriage when you have not one of your own, makes the expences of the journey twelve or thirteen reals or 2s. 8d¼ a league (or legua); but then we go on well, and travel, for instance, the 100 leagues from Madrid to Cadiz in four days and four nights. The distance of the posts varies in the different roads; but as we count only by leagues, we cannot be cheated. There is a little post book to be found in all the large towns which it is right to be provided with: but what is more necessary, and without which nobody will furnish you with

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horses, is to take the permission of the directors and agents of the posts. This permission costs thirty-seven reals and a half or 7s. 9½d. for every person.

Though the posts for carriages are only established upon the road from Madrid to Cadiz, they are upon all the other communications for horsemen; and as nothing but horses are furnished, and as those of the country are excellent, they are in a state of great perfection. I have rode full speed from Lisbon to Madrid in three days, without fatiguing myself, the long gallop of the horses is so easy. Yet the post for saddle horses is seldom found on the grand roads, but most frequently upon cross roads, or roads that have been formerly great roads, but are given up. A postillion always rides before, of whatever number the party consists. The charges are double for the first post on leaving Madrid or the royal palaces when the court is there. The rate of horses varies: in all the provinces of the crown of Castile it is the same as for carriages, four reals, three quartillos, or 11d 7-8ths a league for each horse; but in Navarre, Aragon, Catalonia, and the kingdom of Valencia, it is five reals and a half or 1s. 1½d. besides the two reals at each post for the postillion, to which something is generally added. We are carried on fast, and if we have but tolerable health and a good English saddle this manner of travelling is the most expeditious and the most convenient; we may even take a good deal of luggage with us, the postillion takes care of your portmanteau, which may weigh as much as sixty pounds. Yet travellers who wish to become acquainted with Spain seldom take this method, which does not allow time for enquiry, and only leads through uninteresting roads.

The best manner of travelling in Spain is to follow the common custom, that is to say, to hire horses, or to buy

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them, if one intends to stay long in the country. Conductors are to be found in all the considerable towns, and are almost all from Valencia, Murcia, or Catalonia, and who convey travellers every where; they even go as far as Perpignan, Bourdeaux, and Lisbon. They travel six or eight *leguas* a day, twelve French leagues at most, and their charges are according to the number of mules. They are generally paid two piastres a day; but it is necessary to observe what follows:

You hire a carriage, expressly for yourself, or one on its return. In the first case the journey as well as return of the coach must be paid for at the place from whence you set out; which, for great distances, amounts to a considerable sum; but it is seldom that you are obliged to hire a carriage for yourself, as, very frequently, most of the coachmen go to the great towns upon speculation*. Thus in the considerable inns of Madrid, Cadiz, Seville, Badajoz, &c. people, called *corredores de carruages y coches*, are every day to be met with who have a list of all the carriages for which they are commissioned to find passengers. It is easy therefore to obtain *return carriages*, for which you merely pay for the journey which you make; but it is necessary to treat with the driver coolly and pay no attention to the advice of the innkeepers, or to the loud voice of the corredores, and to insist absolutely upon your own terms. When they perceive that you are determined not to give them more, the master of the carriage comes himself, and endeavours to settle matters with you. If it happens, as is often the case, that several coachmen going to the same town and particularly to the sea-ports,

* This, and the three following pages, as well as some other hints are taken from M. Fisher's observations on the manner of travelling in Spain.

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where they like to go in preference, should be found in the place, you have the choice, and may even sometimes be able to make them lower their price some piastres.

Thus then the *first* rule that must be observed, is to agree that you are not to pay for the return of the carriage; the *second* is to take care not to be cheated as to the number of days to be spent on the road. For instance, Bayonne is sixty *leguas* from Madrid, and the journey may be made in eight days. The charge for six mules at two piastres each, a day, amounts for eight days to ninety-six piastres; but a dishonest conductor, can make ten days journey of it, either to spare his mules, or to make you pay for two days journey more. To avoid this inconvenience, it is necessary, before you set out to obtain exact information, and to stipulate with the coachman that he shall make the journey in a reasonable and fixed time, under the penalty of losing a third of the money that he is to receive. The *third* rule is never to agree to give a farthing over either for the coachman, or the mules, tolls or repairs, &c. If the traveller should think proper to defray the expences of the coachmen's dinner, or to *add* other mules, the number being always restricted to two, the daily expence would be enormous; in general it is better to allow them a reasonable sum to get something to drink with, about four piastres. Nor must he agree to pay for their tobacco, which they very frequently ask; an inexperienced traveller would consider this as a trifle, but before long he would see with what effrontery the coachmen would abuse his indulgence, and how freely they would at all the inns make provision at his expence for their acquaintance; which, considering the enormous price of tobacco in Spain (three piastres a pound) would not fail to amount to a large sum: it is much better, upon the road, to give them cigars, for which they will be very thankful to you. *Fourth* rule: as in pay

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ing for the six mules you obtain an exclusive right to the carriage, the coachman cannot without your express consent take up another person, even upon his box; but the traveller has a right to underlet the empty places, or to allow them to be occupied gratis. *Fifth* rule: if you wish to stop in some place on the road for one day, the coachman must stay for you, it being understood that you will pay him for his day's work; it is the same if you wish to turn out of the road to any place; and in this case, three or four *leguas* will be considered as half a day. But as it is sometimes the interest of the coachmen themselves to rest their mules, the traveller is often able on these occasions to make them charge one-third less. *Sixth* rule: the coachman is responsible for every trunk or package that is trusted to him; except in the case of an open robbery. *Seventh* rule: in making these arrangements about their charges, it is necessary to mention the coin with which the payment is to be made; for, as at Barcelona, for example, and at Bilbao, one gains by money, it is customary at the former place, to ask only doublons or quadruples, and at the latter place piastres. The traveller then should agree to pay them with the cash he has about him, and not engage to change on purpose to pay them the odd money.

It may be easily supposed that a person travelling alone will not feel much inclined to hire a carriage with six mules to himself. These are only hired by families, or by companies of travellers; when a traveller is alone, it is better for him to take a *single* place. In this case, when the coachman cannot let the whole of his carriage at once, he looks out for several travellers, and charges for the first place at the rate of three or four piastres, and something less for the others: these places are often advertised in the public papers. If the two or three first are previously taken, the

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coachman, to hasten his departure, frequently disposes of the last place at a piastre, or a piastre and a half a day. The persons who have the two first places have a right to carry a trunk with them, but the coachmen make no difficulty in taking portmanteaus, packets, &c.

If it happens that there are no single places to be had, the traveller may take half a chaise (*calesin*); in which, with respect to its return, it is necessary to observe what we have said above. The charge then is two piastres a day for one mule. If you have not much baggage, that is to say, if it does not exceed fifty pounds weight, you may take another traveller with you to lessen the expence. To determine the weight that is allowed, it is sufficient to know, that it is calculated at the rate of from seven hundred and fifty to eight hundred pounds to one draft mule. The *Caleseros* being generally proprietors of these carriages, and fearing to stay long in the large towns, the traveller may be able to make them abate a third of their price; but the precaution that we have before mentioned, namely, to fix the number of days on the road, should never be forgotten.

In general, it is necessary to treat the *caleseros* and *cocheros*, in a very particular manner; never with rudeness or incivility, but at the same time with no respect or deference; a serious air, calm and even manners; dignity and firmness are indespensable qualities to manage matters well with this sort of people. There is no occasion for written agreements with them; for in spite of their coarseness they are faithful to their bargains. You may, however, make them sign the terms agreed on, with a counterpart subscribed by both parties. The carriages in Spain are commonly of three kinds: *volantes* or calechines, calechas, and coches de culleras, all tolerably

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commodious, but in general very clumsy. The volantes or calechines are small cabriolets, on two wheels, with leather curtains before, and a seat able to hold two persons, but rather close; they are drawn by a mule or horse, and driven by a *volantero* or conductor, who goes sometimes on foot by the side of his beast and sometimes sitting on the shaft. These little machines carry considerable loads; two trunks may be put inside and a bed behind. The charge for these was tolerably moderate before the last war; being generally from twenty to four and twenty reals of vellon, that is to say, from four to five shillings a day, taking them to go and come back; they were dearer, if they were not paid for returning, more or less, according to the likelihood of finding other travellers at the places they were going to. The charges are double since the war. These carriages are suspended by very short and thick straps, so that they follow every motion of the wheels and shafts, and the persons in them are violently and continually jolted; they let in the weather on all sides; the leather curtains never shut; they always remain half open, and the traveller is exposed to wind, rain, sun, and dust.

The *calechas* are also a kind of cabriolets, of the same form and construction as the *volantes*, and they are almost always confounded with them, but they are larger and deeper; they are drawn by two mules or horses, upon one of which the *calechero* or conductor rides; yet he almost always goes part of the way on foot. Though these carriages have two mules or horses, they do not go the quicker, and are as many days on the road as the *volantes*; the only advantage that a traveller gains is, that he is a little more at his ease, and is enabled to carry more luggage. The price of them is rather higher than that of

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the *volantes*, but the difference is not great. We are less incomfortable in them than in the *volantes*, more at ease, and better supported: some of them are better hung and more sheltered; but they are seldom to be met with, except in Portugal; in Spain there is scarcely any thing to be seen but *volantes* drawn by a single horse.

The *coches de cullera* are carriages which hold four persons, built with greater solidity than elegance, close and on better springs, easy and much more commodious. They are drawn by six mules, two abreast, and harnessed to each other and to the pole by common ropes, which are long enough to allow a considerable distance between the mules; this is called a *tiro*. These carriages are under the direction of two persons, the principal of whom is called *mayoral*, and the other *zagal*, or *mozo*, the former acts as coachman and the latter as postillion; but they are never mounted; they carry very considerable loads both behind and before. They perform almost always the journey in the same time as the *volantes* and *calechas*, unless by a particular agreement, which is paid for extravagantly, the proprietor or *mayoral* undertake to go quicker, and to perform the journey in a certain number of days. The fare of these carriages is not always the same; it varies according to circumstances; but may be always calculated at three piastres a day for two persons, and two piastres at the least for a single person, without reckoning what is given to the conductor. The standard for all the prices, and which may serve as a guide, is one piastre a day each mule, and one piastre or half a piastre at least for the conductor; we are then to calculate the return, which would greatly add to the sum, but it seldom happens that return carriages are not to be found, as we have mentioned above.

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The manner in which the *coches de cullèras* move on is singular enough, laughable, and sometimes alarming, but never dangerous. One cannot be easy while the mules without bridles or guides, fastened only by traces of a surprising length, which allow them to go to a distance, to return and wander at pleasure, and this over roads, often winding, uneven, rugged, sometimes steep, and sometimes unbeaten; you think every moment that they are going to overset the carriage, to drag it over dangerous heights, and throw it down deep precipices; but your fears are soon removed by the vigilance, by the active and prompt dexterity of the conductors, and by the docility of the animals which draw it. These have no other bridle, guide or spur, than the voice of the conductors; they know it, they know the different inflexions and meanings of it, which they obey with an astonishing promptitude: a sound from the *mayoral* is sufficient to stop and direct them; his voice encourages them, puts them on, makes them go faster or slower, turn to the right or left, go farther or come nearer, and stops them instantly: if a mule goes on one side, moves too fast or too slow, the *mayoral* calls him by his name, which is commonly that of a military rank, as *generala, capitana, commissaria,* and tells him in his language what he ought to do; the docile animal hears, understands, and obeys him: he also animates and brings in those that go out of the path by throwing small pebbles at them, which method, without hurting, gives them a warning that they understand. The *mayoral* and *zagal* keep watch at the front of the carriage, which serves them as a seat; on the slightest appearance of danger, the *zagal* springs forward with a surprising agility, walks by the side of the mules, runs along side of them, encourages them with his voice, ties

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himself to the traces with which they are harnessed, and which he directs: sometimes if he thinks there is any danger, especially in difficult places, he puts himself at their head between the two leading mules, and guides them with skill; he then returns to his post until some new danger obliges him to renew the same operation.

One may also travel through Spain in one's own carriage; but then it would cost double, and sometimes treble what it would otherwise; for as the conductors cannot carry people back, the return must be paid for: besides which they make what agreements they please, for one is obliged to give what they demand when there are not muleteers enough to raise a competition. When a traveller takes his own carriage, he is obliged to pay on entering Spain a considerable duty, or he must be recommended to a merchant on the frontiers, to engage that it shall be carried out of the kingdom in a stated time; an alteration must also be made in the carriage, and one is sometimes delayed two days on the frontiers, to adapt a new pole suitable to the harnessing of the mules: by this, however, an advantage is gained in the mayoral's not sitting on your box, which is left free for the servants. This mode of travelling is undoubtedly very expensive, but it is the only one really commodious.

If you do not choose to take either post-horses, or hire public carriages, you may go on horseback *(à caballo)* as the Spaniards say, even when they ride mules. In that case you hire a mule with its conductor *(mozo de espúllas,* literally *groom of the spurs)* and may make the common journey of six or seven leagues tolerably quick, as the conductors, who act as servants, are generally very good foot travellers. The price of a mule is one piaster a-day; sometimes, however, it is one and a half.

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Then the conductor besides his victuals, has another half piaster for his trouble. With regard to eating and drinking, one is expected to have two common dishes and *a quartillo* (a pint) of wine each meal; all more than that is at the pleasure of the traveller. The conductor of whom we are speaking, is usually a faithful and serviceable companion in travelling, perfectly acquainted with the roads from having often travelled them. He takes care to bespeak dinner for his master, and, by his connection at inns, and his knowledge of the prices, reduces the reckonings to a just and reasonable price. One may travel, with these conductors, from Vittoria to Cadiz, and there are no return expences to be defrayed.

It was in this manner that I generally travelled in Spain; and I am persuaded that all who adopt this mode will do well; it requires only to have good mules and to hire them for a long time, not to be perpetually changing; it would be better to purchase them, and to hire a young and intelligent muleteer. Nothing can be more agreeable than travelling the beautiful country of Spain on horseback in this manner; all the roads are embalmed with the odour of aromatic plants, the aspect of the country varies perpetually among the mountains we go over, where we now have an extensive view, and now a wild and picturesque scene.

The badness of the roads is not perceived on horseback, and by going a little out of our way we find different provisions to buy as we proceed, chiefly game. We sleep for the most part on beds of straw, but they are covered with the woollen counterpanes which are fixed to our saddles, and we wrap ourselves up in our cloaks; the habit once acquired we sleep as well in this manner as in the best bed, and are ready to proceed at day break and breathe the

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fine morning air: we dress at noon at the place where we stop to dine, and take an hour of *siesta* after dinner before we set out on our evening's journey. This free and wandering life in a country where nature is beautiful, and in which there are fine monuments, is more delightful than can be imagined.

Those who think that all these modes are still too expensive, may travel with the carriers *(arrieros)*—these have mules also, or carriages. In the first case, the mule costs a *piecette* the league, or a piaster for five leagues, and the traveller may carry his baggage weighing as much as ten or eleven arobas, that is to say, from 250 to 272 pounds. In travelling this way there is no occasion to keep with the other mules which travel in a body; but if you choose, may go on before to get sooner to the inn; only taking care that you have not a lame, blind, or restive mule, which often happens; this manner of travelling is not attended with the expence of changing your cattle or with any additional disbursement.

If one is not accustomed to the Spanish cookery, it would be right to make at the same time a bargain with the carrier, or *arriero*, for eating, wine, and lodging, and to rely on him for settling the account. In this case a journey of sixty or seventy leagues, costs in all from sixteen to nineteen piasters, and much expence at inns is avoided, without being worse served; for a traveller must of course pay treble what an *arriero* does, who goes the road every month, and with whom consequently the inn-keepers wish to keep friends. I should particularly recommend this last manner of travelling to mineralogists and botanists. In the first place the journeys are short and slow; and then the *arrieros* pass over the highest parts of mountains, where there are most objects for the

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researches of naturalists. Another advantage is that of often travelling with a great deal of company; it is not uncommon to see thirty mules together: a person if he likes may then stay behind without being in danger of straggling. Besides there is nothing disgraceful in this manner of travelling: it is the way ecclesiastics, merchants and gentlemen travel. It would be otherwise with those who choose to hire only half a mule, and to go in the file with the animal half-loaded. In this case the person pays, as for a portmanteau, according to weight; and as the *arroba* (twenty-five pounds) is charged a piaster, a person weighing near a hundred and twenty-five pounds (five *arrobas*) pays for the same distance five piasters; but this mode is so despicable and incommodious, that it is the custom in Spain to say in contempt of a person who adopts it, that he travels *por arrobas*, by weight.

Other *arrieros* carry merchandise in carts. We meet with these more frequently in the interior of Spain, especially to the south, than in the northern provinces; it would however, considering the improvement that has taken place in the mountainous roads, be as easy as advantageous to introduce this mode of travelling. A mule cannot carry above three hundred weight, and even then is very much loaded; but it will draw nearly eight hundred. Since the passage by sea has been put a stop to by the war, there are carriers of this kind from Lisbon to Barcelona, and from Cadiz to Bayonne. They have two-wheeled covered carts, drawn by four mules; and contain commodious seats for travellers. The fare is less for this kind of carriages, and one may travel in this manner a hundred leagues, at the rate of eleven or twelve piasters, including a large portmanteau. As the distance they go in a day is very short and slow, for example, the

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hundred leagues from Cadiz to Madrid take up fifteen days, they would be likewise very convenient for mineralogists and botanists. Add to which the advantage of sleeping all night in the carriage, particularly in summer, which, if one carries one's mattrass, is far preferable to the filthy and infectious beds of the inns.

In general, there are *ordinarios* or couriers, going backwards and forwards to all the great towns, either with mules, or carriages; for example, there is a courier goes regularly once every fortnight, and also once every week from Bilbao to Madrid. There are *ordinarios* going every fortnight from Madrid to Malaga, Barcelona, Badajoz, &c. Every one has his particular inn where he puts up; which is easy to be known: besides which it may always be found in the *Mercantile Almanack*. One sometimes is at a loss for an opportunity of going directly from Madrid to Lisbon; but then the distance from Badajoz to Elvas the first Portugese fortress is but three leagues more or three leagues to Estremos, where there are always a great many return carriages. The *ordinario del rey* goes every month with the dispatches of the court to Lisbon, and takes travellers who are recommended to him at a very reasonable rate.

As to the manner of travelling on *boricos* or asses, it is as follows: when a person is only going a few leagues, he may very well make use of them; if the conductor belongs to the place he is going to, he only pays at most two reals a league; but on a great road, if he wishes to hire a borico expressly to go from village to village, he not only runs a risk of not finding one, on account of the distance; but, supposing he does, he must pay for going and coming six reals a league. Add to this, that it is a very inconvenient mode, to be seated on a coarse

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and unsteady pack-saddle, on an animal often restive, without curb or bridle, made to go on with a stick, and which, at every blow he receives, kicks, jumps from side to side, and keeps you always on the watch.

Walkers.—Travelling alone and on foot in Spain exposes one to many inconveniences. I do not remember to have met a single foot traveller in this country, except between two villages very near each other. Pilgrims, soldiers, beggars, and in short all who travel on foot, go always in company with an *arriero*, or some carriage. A single foot traveller runs a risk of not being admitted into the inns. If we add to this the great distances between the different towns, and the insecurity of the roads, an inconvenience not exaggerated, it will be easily imagined that travelling on foot in Spain, is not so practicable or so common as in France or Germany.

What I have said respecting the insecurity of the roads, is not to be understood of all Spain. It is true that robberies and assassinations are not uncommon; but the government sends soldiers on the highways, and have been endeavouring for a long time past, to render the roads secure. It is necessary to be well armed in travelling in Spain, less perhaps to defend one's self than to prevent an attack. The greatest part of the robberies are made from intelligence gained by the robbers themselves at the places where the travellers alight; I shall mention only one example which happened to my own knowledge. Travelling on horseback, I arrived with my servant at Antequera, a town situated half way between Granada and Malaga; there had been a heavy rain all day, and in spite of our precautions, our arms were all wet; the first thing we did on alighting at the inn, was to clean and to take them to pieces with the greatest care. There were two good

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looking men near the fire preparing their supper; I asked them if they would allow us to put into their pan the same quantity of rice, saffron, fat, and a rabbit, as we could not attend to the dressing of them; we supped in company, and in the morning, after taking some chocolate, lighted our cigars together, and separated. I was very much surprised at my arrival at Malaga, to hear that these two very men (and it was impossible to mistake the description given me of them) had robbed M. Martens, the son of a rich merchant at Hamburg, who travelled without arms; they had forced him to go out of the road and enter a hollow way in the middle of a *despoblado*, on the road. They would, without doubt, have done the same thing by us, had they not feared they would have met with more difficulty and doubtless less profit.

We are now to speak of the inns of Spain; and these do not form any part of its splendour. There is a general clamour, and with reason, against the difficulties travellers meet with in this country, in procuring lodgings and refreshment, and against the inconveniences of the places meant for their accommodation.

Inns are not common, good ones are still more scarce, in many places they have only bad public houses; dirty loathsome places, where the beds are vile, are in most of the provinces, the only resource.

The houses for the reception of travellers are divided into three classes: the *fondas*, the *posadas*, otherwise called *casas de posada*, or *mesones*, and the *ventas*. The *fondas* and *posadas* are always situated in the towns and villages; the *ventas* are detached houses in the country by the side of roads, at a distance more or less removed from the villages.

The *fondas* are real inns, where travellers may find lodging and every thing they want; there is always some-

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thing ready cooked in several of them, particularly in great towns; the dinner at the *table d'hote* is fixed for a certain hour and at a certain price; those who wish it, however, are served in private, which makes a diffesence in the price. In others, travellers do not intermix, but are served by themselves; and the price varies according to the quantity and quality of what is ordered.

The *fondas* are divided into two classes in the great towns; the one more and the other less distinguished in proportion.

The inns of the first class are dearer at Cadiz and at Madrid, than any where else; we pay at the *table d'hote*, twelve reals or half a crown English, a meal; in the latter town, we also pay for lodging, the price of which varies according to the beauty of the apartments; it is from six reals or fifteen pence to twenty-four reals or five shillings a day. There are some tolerably decent inns in Madrid, in which we only pay from six to eight reals, from fifteen to twenty pence a meal. The common price at almost all the other inns of Spain is eight reals, or twenty pence, for a dinner at the *table d'hote;* it is in most of them sixteen reals or 3*s.* 4*d.* ster. a day, in which are reckoned dinner, supper, and lodging*.

The *posadas*, or *casas de posada*, or *mesones*, are houses in different quarters of the towns and villages, where the traveller is provided only with lodging, where nothing is furnished for the table, and whither he must carry every thing, or have it bought, the master or mistress of the place undertaking only to prepare the eatables given to them. These are in general nasty and disgusting; there are scarcely even paltry bedsteads, with old flock mat-

* These prices have been raised in several places, within ten years.

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trasses falling to pieces, and coarse sheets, badly washed, scarcely larger than a good sized napkin; benches for seats, greasy plates, pewter or iron spoons, always very dirty; oil lamps, and, to complete the picture, landlords filthy, inattentive, rude, coarse and brutal; the manner of dressing the victuals detestable; and one is often unable to procure any thing in the places where these houses are situated.

A traveller who is unprovided with the necessary provisions, cannot on arriving, repose himself from the fatigues of his journey; though often very weary, he is forced to run from house to house to buy, in one bread, in another wine, in a third oil, and in others meat, eggs, and salt; and he may think himself well off if, after having run about, often in the dark, he can procure any thing.

These houses of *posada* are very numerous in almost every part of Spain; there is scarcely any other place of accommodation; the *fondas* are only in a few considerable towns, and there are even some great towns in which there are none: the *ventas*, of which we shall speak, are only in detached places, at a distance from the villages.

Some of these houses of *posada*, however, are less disagreeable than others; some have tolerable chambers, passable beds kept in a clean state, and the landlords of which are more complaisant and attentive; but such are very uncommon; and we may travel a good way without meeting with one.

There are others where the traveller finds persons whose office it is to offer their services, and who, for a little money, undertake to go and buy whatever is necessary; the landlords cannot in this case undertake it, and they are often expressly prohibited from intermeddling with it.

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The *ventas* are detached houses, situated on the great roads, more or less distant from the villages; they are for the accommodation of travellers. They are in general as bad and as disagreeable as the *casas de posadas;* but they often have provisions, though not the best, and in a small quantity. The distance from the villages obliges the landlords of the *ventas* to keep provisions, in order to furnish travellers with things they cannot purchase on the spot.

There are neither *casas de posadas* nor *ventas* in Catalonia; there they are all *hostal,* that is to say inns; the traveller need not take care about his provisions, for he may depend on finding plenty wherever he puts up. There are tolerable inns in this province, those of Figueras, Martorell and Emposta, are passable; those of Gironna and Calella are good; those of Mataro, at the sign of Monserat, of Lerida, at the sign of St. Louis, and of Villa Franca de Panadez, and some of those at Barcelona are excellent.

In every other part of Spain, the *fondas,* those houses in which provisions are kept ready, and in which we are served without any trouble, are uncommon. There are none of them in Galicia, the Asturias, the kingdom of Leon, Estremadura, la Mancha, and the kingdom of Jaen: that of Cordova has only one, which is in the town of the same name. There is only one in the kingdom of Murcia, at Albacete, which is tolerable, and another at Carthagena, which is better; the town of Murcia, the capital of that province, has none. There are several in the kingdom of Seville, at the town of that name, and at Cadiz, most of them very good. Biscay has some at Bilbao; Guipuzcoa at S. Sebastian, and Tolosa and Alava at Vittoria. The kingdom of Valencia has three in the town of that name, two at Alicant, two at Vinaroz, two at Castello de

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la Plana, and one at Fuente de la Higuera. There are only two in Arragon, one at Fraga, which is tolerable, and one at Saragossa, which is bad. New Castile has one at Puerto de Guadarrama, which has fallen off a great deal from what it was; one at Toledo, which is excellent; one at Acala de Henarez, which is good, and several at Madrid, among which those of the Golden fountain, the S. Sebastian, and the Cross of Malta, are the principal, and several tolerably good, at the different royal residences, when the court is there.

The *casas de posadas* and the *ventas* of Arragon, Galicia, the kingdom of Leon, Estremadura, Old Castile, the kingdoms of Jaen, Cordova, and Murcia, are detestable; nothing can be worse, more disagreeable or more disgusting. Those situated on the roads from Madrid to Cadiz, and to Valencia, are infinitely better kept, cleaner, better provided and better provisioned. All those on the great road which goes through the kingdom of Valencia are the real *fondas*, where travellers are comfortable enough.

Several causes contribute to keep up those detestable lodging houses, which are the pest of travellers.

I. Most of those houses belong to towns, villages, and particular lords, who let them out at a very high price; and at the same time subject them to considerable taxes. The inn of Fraga in Arragon, pays 65 reals, or 13s. 6½d. a day for the rent of the house and the right of keeping an inn, and 23,725 reals or 234l. 12s. 8½d. sterling a year for different duties, services, and taxes, which amount annually to a sum of 47,244 reals or 496l. 5s. 10d. sterling. The *casa de posada* of Murcia pays 30 reals, or 6s. 3d. a day for the rent, and 750 reals, or 7l. 15s. 10d. sterling a year for the duty of *alcabala*, which amounts yearly to 11,500 reals or 118l. 4s. 7d. sterling.

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II. Almost every where, in the provinces of the crown of Castile, the landlords of *casas de posadas* are prohibited from keeping any kind of provisions, or even, in some places, live poultry.

III. In many places every inhabitant is bound, to keep in turn, the *casa de posada* for a certain time; they are obliged to do it, and cannot refuse until their stated time is expired. The consequence is, that those who perform this office by force, do it badly and with an ill grace; the want of habit occasions ignorance of the business and want of address in the exercise of it, and the new *possadero* being poor, cannot provide their *casas de posadas* with furniture and other necessary things.

IV. In a great part of Spain the trade of an innkeeper and *passadero* is regarded as mean and abject; and those who exercise it are generally despised. Hence few are willing to undertake it; hence those who are forced to it perform the task with reluctance and disgust; and hence too they, from having amassed some money, are able to be at the necessary expences for keeping a good inn, will not undertake this business, which renders them contemptible in the eyes of their fellow citizens.

V. There are in general but few travellers in Spain, either natives or foreigners; most of those who travel are settled in the country and engaged in commerce, some profession, or business, and seldom leave the towns where they have fixed their residence. Great inns could not be supported but in great towns where people assemble; they could not be kept up long on the roads.

As to the season for travelling in Spain, I think the most convenient time is from April to October. *Townsend*, indeed, gives the preference to winter for the south provinces, on account of the heat; but I am not of his

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opinion: for in fact the heat is much greater in the heart of Spain and in the mountains to the north, than on the south side, where the sea always softens the air, and where the nights are almost always cool. I have passed the hottest months, those of July and August, in Andalusia, and have often remained in the streets till eleven o'clock in the forenoon, without ever having had a *coup de soleil* or any other accident*. Besides, in the southern provinces of Spain, the frequent rains which fall during the winter, render this season very inconvenient for travelling; and add to this the shortnesss of the days, a cloudy sky, and the tiresomeness of the long evenings in the *ventas* and detached *posadas*. When we travel from north to south in Spain, we become accustomed by degrees to the climate; and if, in the hot months, we travel according to the ancient Spanish custom, in the morning and evening, we suffer little from the heat, and enjoy in the three best seasons all the charms of the country.

As to specie, it is to be observed that only money of the country is current in Spain. We may now however get rid of French money, though at a loss. The best way therefore is to take Spanish pieces at Bayonne; which may be done, if not with profit, at least without loss. When I went from Bayonne in the spring of 1797, I changed my French pieces of six livres for Spanish doubloons, at one and a half per cent. gain, on account of the scarceness of the one and the quantity of the other. In France and Italy there is a considerable profit in using piasters; but in Spain the carrying them out of the country is prohibted, so that a person who has no other resource,

* This last page and part of the preceding are from Mr. Ficher.

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must obtain *a licence*, by which he loses four per cent.: but unfortunately not more is allowed to be taken than to the amount of seventy pieces, so that when a man has a greater sum, he finds himself encumbered.

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NATURAL GEOGRAPHY

OF

SPAIN.

THE best panegyric that could be bestowed on Spain would be to give a view of its situation, its temperature, the direction of its mountains, the beds of its rivers; in a word of the composition of its territory. We should then see a vast country situated between two seas which spread its commerce into every part of the world, and protect its bounds from all invasion. The only part that unites it to the Continent, at the same time separates it; and the Pyrenees furnish it either with a formidable barrier, or an easy communication. The whole of those mountains, forming a semi-circle close to the eastern shores, shelter them from the north winds, and produce the mildest climate on that side. On the other side they surround an extent of country large enough to allow the rivers which rise in those mountains, and all of which,

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with the exception of the Ebro, throw themselves into the Atlantic, to expand themselves sufficiently for the commerce and agriculture of a great country. An inspection of the map will give a better idea of this happy distribution.

No. 1.

Map of the Mountains of Spain.

SPAIN is situated between 35 degrees 57 minutes south, and 43 degrees 44 minutes north latitude, from Gibraltar to Cape Ortegal, and between 8 degrees 20 minutes and 21 degrees longitude* from Cape Finisterre to Cape Creus; which makes it 195 leagues from north to south, and 219 from east to west in its greatest breadth towards the north. Exclusive of Portugal its surface is 25,137 square leagues. It lies between the fifth climate on the south, and half-way between the sixth and seventh on the north; therefore the longest days are fourteen hours and a half in the southern part, and fifteen and a half in the northern.

From the inspection of this map it would appear, that all the mountains of Spain are composed of one single mass; and in fact

* Meridian of Paris.

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they are all ramifications from one another, which follow, correspond, and leave between them considerable intervals, yet all linked to the same stock. We shall now take a rapid view of them.

The first chain that we perceive, on leaving Cape Finisterre, stretches along the whole of the north of Spain, and joins the Pyrenees; in this are the sources of the Miño and the Duero, which throw themselves into the Atlantic; and that of the Ebro, the course of which is towards the Mediterranean. These mountains, advancing towards the south-east, divide the streams which flow into the Ebro from those which augment the Duero. On one side they form the outline of Aragon, and on the other that of Old Castile. They advance thus as far as Cuença and Molina, the names of which they take, and soon after give rise to the Tagus on the right, and the Xucar and the Guadalaviar on the left. Here we find the nucleus, and, as we may say, the knot of the whole chain, Mount Cayo, which seems to be the reservoir of all the waters that rise in springs around this point, and take their course towards the two seas. This same chain, still advancing towards the south, forms a mass from whence the Guadiana flows, and further on the Guadalquivir; it then stretches on and terminates at the cape de Gatte. Let us now

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reflect, that the rivers which rise within this chain, in a manner divide it into so many large valleys and intermediate plains, yet leaving in the intervals considerable ramifications, all of which are attached to the principal trunk. Just as they all flow in parallels towards the ocean, so do the mountains which overhang and swell them with their waters, run in parallel ridges from the mountains of the Asturias in the north to the Alpuxarras in the south. Thus the mountains of Saint Andero, which join the Pyrenees, run along between the Duero and the sea. The mountains of Guadarrama, which separate Old from New Castile, run between the Tagus and the Duero. Another chain, which divides New Castile from the plains of La Mancha, rises from the north-east to the south-east between the Tagus and the Guadiana; in this we find the *Sierra de Guadalupe*. On the other side of the Guadiana is the famous *Sierra Morena*, from which we descend into the beautiful plains of Andalusia, which are watered by the Guadalquivir, and overlooked by the last chain of mountains in Spain, the Alpuxarras, which extends to the coast.

The direction of the mountains and rivers of this country sufficiently points out what are its natural lines of defence. To set out from the defiles of *Pancorvo*, four barriers shut up the

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avenues of Spain from north to south, and these long retarded the progress of the Christians against the Moors. They would have protected them much longer, if those people, driven into the Alpuxarras as formerly the Christians were into the Asturias, had known how to maintain themselves with equal obstinacy. The mountains of Spain are almost all calcareous, and no traces are to be seen in them of Volcanoes. I shall give a description of the different chains, and of the rivers which run from them, with that of the provinces which contain them; but one observation, which I must make here, from the influence the object of it has upon the temperature of Spain, is the singular height of this country above the level of the sea. Though from the north-east the country gradually becomes lower, yet the high plain, or table land of the Castiles, has an elevation of upwards of 300 fathoms. This singularity may lead to curious observations, and I imagined that my readers would be pleased to have it placed in a view more striking to the senses, by a representation of it in two geological engravings*, for which, as well as for the interesting explanation that accompanies them, I am indebted to the great kindness of M. de Humboldt.

* See plates 2 and 3.

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Observations upon the Face of the Country of Spain and its Climate. By M. A. de Humboldt.

No country of Europe presents so singular a configuration as Spain. It is this extraordinary form which accounts for the aridity of the soil in the interior of the Castiles, the power of evaporation, the want of rivers, and that difference of temperature which is observable between Madrid and Naples, two towns situated in the same degree of latitude. We shall only be able to give a rough sketch of this meteorological view of Spain. Very few observations have hitherto been made on the mean temperature, or on the height of the barometer. A great deal of valuable materials perhaps remains unknown in the manuscripts of enlightened persons, who, without communicating with one another, or with the learned of other nations, have given themselves up to researches of this kind. When we do not possess exact observations, we must content ourselves with the analogy seen in neighbouring countries. It is easier to trace the natural aspect of New Spain than that of Old; and in this respect we are better acquainted with the colonies than with the mother country.

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The interior of Spain is an elevated plain, and is the highest of any of the same kind in Europe which occupies a large extent of country. Switzerland, the Tyrol, and Scotland, contain ranges of mountains close to one another. These are masses furrowed with deep valleys, and surrounded with low plains. Switzerland is not really a raised plain. The cantons of Berne, Fribourg, Zuric, and all those countries covered with a new formation of free-stone, are plains, the height of which is only from 240 to 280 fathoms above the level of the ocean. They form part of the grand longitudinal valley which extends from the south-west to the north-east, between the chain of the upper Alps and Mount Jura, as appears by the beautiful geological maps just published by M. Ebel. In France, and particularly in Germany, there are raised plains, not of very great extent certainly, but well worth being mentioned. In France, the highest plain is that of Auvergne, in which Mont-d'Or, Cantal, and the Puy de Dome stand. It is 370 fathoms above the sea, according to the barometrical calculation of a celebrated mineralogist, M. de. Buch. Lorraine forms a raised plain that extends between the Vosges and the chain of mountains, which, passing by Epinal and Saint-Mihel, joins the Ardennes. This elevated plain, however, is only from 130

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to 140 fathoms high. The centre of the plains of France, the department of Loir and Cher, is from eighty to ninety fathoms high.

Bavaria is the most extensive and the highest level land of Germany. A vast plain, the bed of an ancient lake, extends from the granite mountains of the upper Palatinate (*Fichtel Gebürge*) to the foot of the Alps in the Tyrol. These plains (and this fact is very curious and hitherto little known), like the small plain of Auvergne, are from 250 to 260 fathoms above the level of the ocean.

The interior of the two Castiles presents a raised plain which exceeds in height and extent all those that we have just mentioned. Its mean elevation appears to be three hundred fathoms. The height of the barometer at Madrid is twenty-six inches two lines and two-fifths, according to a note communicated by M. Bauza, a distinguished astronomer, employed in the depôt of charts for the navy at Madrid. It is therefore two inches or one-fourteenth lower than the mean height of the mercury at the level of the ocean. This is the difference of the pressure of the atmosphere which is experienced by all bodies exposed to the open air at Madrid, Cadiz or Bordeaux. At Madrid the Barometer falls as low as twenty-five inches six lines, and even lower. The *Diario de los nuevos descubrimientos de*

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todas las Ciencias fisicas, volume iii. pages 56, 200, 407, contains a series of very interesting meteorological observations, but which unfortunately do not include a whole year.

The following is a table of the variations of the pressure of the air in the nine first months of the year 1793—

1793. Months.	Maximum.			Minimum.			Mean Height of the Barometer.		
	Inch.	Lines.		Inch.	Lines.		Inch.	Lines.	
January,	26	5	8	25	9	8	26	2	6
February,	25	5	3	26	6	2	26	1	6
March,	26	4	7	25	6	0	25	11	6
April,	26	2	4	25	6	9	25	11	6
May,	26	4	6	25	10	5	26	0	8
June,	26	4	0	25	11	8	26	1	6
July,	26	4	3	26	0	7	26	2	4
August,	26	3	2	25	11	5	26	1	4
September,	26	4	3	25	11	0	26	1	7

The mean height of the barometer at Madrid observed by Don Felipe Bauza shows that capital to be elevated three hundred and nine fathoms three-fifths * above the level of the ocean, according to M. de Laplace and the new coefficient of M. Ramond, allowing the barometer on the

* Recueil d'Observations Astronomiques, by M. de Humboldt, page 18.

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coasts, with Shuckburgh and Fleuriau Bellevue, to be at three hundred thirty-eight and twenty-four lines. Madrid consequently stands as high as the town of Inspruck, which is situated in one of the very high defiles of the Tyrol. The elevation of Madrid is fifteen times greater than that of Paris, three times greater than that of mount Valerian, and also three times greater than that of Geneva*.

Lalande, was the first who made known the elevation of Madrid, according to the observations which were communicated to him by the celebrated geometrician Don George Juan, (*Memoires de l'Academie des Sciences de Paris*, for the year 1776, page 148). He says, that in the street of *los Presiados*, near the *portijo de San Martin*, the town is 294 fathoms higher than Paris; which makes it three hundred and fourteen fathoms above the level of the ocean. According to M. Thalacker, the mineralogist, who has taken several heights with the barometer in the environs of Madrid, the king's palace at St. Ildefonso is five hundred and

* The level of the Seine at the Pont Royal, at No. 13 of the old scale, was elevated nineteen fathoms five feet above the surface of the Ocean. The gallery of the church of Mount Valerian is elevated seventy-four fathoms above the mean height of the Seine. (Cotte Journal des Mines, April 1808, No. 313) Geneva is one hundred and eighty-eight fathoms above the level of the Sea.

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ninety-three fathoms, which is higher than the edge of the crater of Mount Vesuvius. No other monarch in Europe is possessed of a palace in the regions of the clouds: in our countries the heavy summer clouds are from five hundred and fifty to six hundred fathoms high.

The height of the plain of the Castiles has an effect upon its temperature. We are astonished at not finding oranges in the open air in the latitude of forty, the same as that of Tarentum, part of Calabria, Thessaly, and Asia Minor. The mean temperature * of Madrid appears to be 59 degrees of Fahrenheit, while that of Petersburgh is 39 degrees 52 minutes and 30 seconds; that of Berlin 46 degrees 57 minutes and 30 seconds; that of Paris 53 degrees 56 minutes and 15 seconds; that of Marseilles, 58 degrees 33 minutes; that of Toulon 61 degrees 15 minutes; that of Naples 63 degrees 30 minutes; and that of the countries situated under the equator and on the level of the ocean from 79 to 81 degrees. Genoa is 4 degrees more to the north than Madrid, and yet the

* Naturalists find the mean temperature of the year by adding together all the heights of the Thermometer observed in the course of the year, and dividing the total by the number of observations The mean heat of a place in the temperate zone differs sensibly from the medium taken between the maximum and the minimum of the thermometer.

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temperature of Genoa raises the glass almost 2 degrees higher than that of the capital of Spain. Such is the influence of local causes, of the elevation of site, the proximity to the sea, a chain of mountains which keeps off the cold northerly winds, and a great number of little circumstances, the combination of which moderates the temperature of places.

Rome, which is 2 degrees 32 minutes to the south of Genoa, but 1 degree 29 minutes to the north of Madrid, has almost the same mean temperature as the latter town. It is between 60 degrees 7 minutes and 30 seconds, and 61 degrees 15 minutes of Fahrenheit's, according to a great number of very exact observations made by M. Calandrelli and the elder M. de Humboldt, minister of the king of Prussia in Italy. The following table shows the mean temperature for nine months observed at Madrid and at Rome in 1793 and 1807. I have not been able to procure observations made at the same period; but in mean temperature we know the variation of one year from another is hardly perceptible.

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MEAN TEMPERATURE.

	AT MADRID.			AT ROME.			
	deg.	min.	sec.	deg.	min.	sec.	
Latitude	40	25	18	41	53	54	
Elevation	309 fathoms.			Elevation			
	Fahrenheit.			Fahrenheit.			
January	39	3	0	40	11	15	January
February	43	24	0	47	49	30	February
March	47	54	0	50	15	45	March
April	52	19	30	54	34	30	April
May	59	4	30	65	56	15	May
June	72	32	15	72	30	0	June
July	77	13	30	79	15	0	July
August	81	34	30	79	15	0	August
September	65	45	0	72	34	30	September

Even at Rome orange-trees are not able to endure the rigours of winter, and it is necessary to house them. The mean temperature certainly does not alone decide what kind of cultivation, is proper for different climates, yet it has the greatest influence upon cultivation, and the following table points out with sufficient certainty what is the mean temperature below which particular productions cannot be cultivated with success.

	Fahrenheit.		
	min.	deg.	sec.
Vineyards yielding wine -	48	52	30
Olive-trees - - - - - - -	55	37	30

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	Fahrenheit. deg.	min.	sec.
Orange-trees - - - - - -	62	22	30
Coffee - - - - - - - -	64	37	30
Sugar-canes - - - - - -	68	0	0

If the mean temperature of the elevated plains of Spain is 59 degrees of Fahrenheit, that of the coasts from the 41st degree of latitude to the 36th, is between 63½ and 68 degrees Fahrenheit. Thus we see banana-trees, heliconias, and sugar-canes growing upon these coasts in situations that are sheltered from the cold winds.

The geological profile annexed to this work is drawn upon the same principles as I thought it necessary to follow in my natural atlas of the new continent. This profile (Pl. 2.) presents to the view of the observer the extraordinary structure of this country, part of the coasts of which appear to have been swallowed up by the waves, while the central elevated plain resisted the irruption of the ocean. Recollecting the traditions of the Samothracians, and the great catastrophe which occurred in the Mediterranean, we do not pretend to decide a question which has recently engaged the attention of learned men of distinguished merit.

The analogy of form and geological structure presented by the peninsula and Mexico, has led to a comparison which may be interesting to

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naturalists. We have given an outline of Old and one of New Spain, engraved upon the same scale (PL. 3) These are the outlines of countries, the central elevations of which enjoy different climates from that on the coasts. The capitals of both are placed in the middle of the interior plain; but the plain of the mother-country may be said to be the miniature of that of the colony. The difference in height between the highest mountains of the old and new world is only 900 fathoms. The Chimborazo is only one-fourth higher than Mount Blanc, whilst the high plains of the Castiles are four times lower than the central one of Mexico. The mean temperature of Mexico is eight degrees lower than that of Vera Cruz and Acapulco. That of Madrid is probably no more than from two to three degrees below that of the coasts of Valencia. The climate of the capital of New Spain, like that of Madrid, is not quite so cold as might be supposed from the height of the two towns, as the extent of the elevated plains imparts a degree of warmth to the air. The mean temperature of Mexico is 62 deg. 22 min. 30 sec. Fahrenheit; it is below that of Cadiz, and is almost a degree and a half within that of Madrid. The height of the barometer at Mexico is 21 inches 7 lines. The pressure of the air is indicated by a column of mercury five inches shorter than at Madrid.

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European Spain, situated in a latitude under which palm trees *(phœnix dactilifera, chamærops humilis)* grow upon the plains, presents the majestic spectacle of a chain of mountains, the tops of which shoot up into the regions of everlasting snows. Don Clemente Roxas* has discovered by a levelling survey, executed with the greatest care, that in the Sierra Nevada of Granada, the Pico de Venleta is elevated 1781 fathoms 16, and the Mulahacen 1824 fathoms 47, above the level of the ocean. None of the mountains of the Pyrenees are of so great a height; for Mount Perdu, the highest ridge of the Spanish Pyrenees, is only 1763 fathoms, and the highest of the French Pyrenees is only 1722 fathoms. The peak of Mulahacen in the Sierra Nevada of Granada wants only 76 fathoms of being as high as the peak of Teneriffe. Yet even this summit, if situated in the same latitude as the town of Mexico, would not be perpetually covered with snow; for the never melting snows begin† under the equator at

* Manuscript note communicated by M. Bauza. M. Thalacker, in the Annals of *Ciencias Naturales*, published by Cavanilles, has estimated the Peak of Veleta to be only 1154 fathoms high. The barometer of this traveller must have been out of order.

† Essay upon the Refractions in the Torrid Zone, by A. de Humboldt, page 34.

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2460 fathoms high; under the 20th degree of latitude at 2350 fathoms; under the 45th at 1300 fathoms; and under the 62d at 900 fathoms. Such is the depression of the curve from the equator to the pole.

Civil and historical Geography of Spain.

The first known division of Spain took place under the Romans, originally into two parts only, under the names of Spain citerior and ulterior, but was soon called by three denominations Lusitania, Bœtica, and Tarraconensis.

Lusitania comprehended the eastern part, and extended as far as the Atlantic ocean; its limits were marked on the north by the Duero, on the south by the Guadiana, and from one to the other by a straight line drawn from Simancas to Puente de l'Arzobispo, and from thence as far as the country of the people called Oretani, in which the town of Almagro at present stands; it included in its extent the towns of Avila, Salamanca, Coria, the territory of Plasencia, Truxillo, Merida and Portugal, the kingdom of Leon and part of Estremadura.

Bœtica was almost surrounded on two of its sides by the Guadiana, bounded on the south

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by the Mediterranean and the Ocean, and terminated on the east by a line drawn from Murgis or Muxacra, a village near the ancient promontory of Charidemus, now called the cape de Gatte, to the territory of Castulo, which was nearly in the same situation as the modern Cazlona, and to the country of the Oretani; it formed what is called Andalusia, containing the kingdoms of Seville, Jaen, Cordova, and Granada; it also included a part of modern Estremadura, and extended as far as Badajoz, which was within its boundaries.

Hispania Tarraconensis comprehended all the other parts of Spain, and was the same as what was previously called citerior Spain.

This division of Spain underwent some alterations under the last Roman emperors, and was totally changed after the invasion of the northern nations. Spain was at that time a great power, which was overthrown in a single battle, and reduced to the small province of the Asturias by the conquest of the Arabs. It is from that era that we date the modern division of Spain, and the origin of the different kingdoms and principalities which were formed progressively from the middle of the 8th century to the end of the 15th. As I am going to describe them separately, I shall confine

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myself here to presenting a chronological table of the periods of their formation, and of the kings by whom they have been governed, without entering into any critical examination of the subject.

Chronological Table of the Kings of Spain from Pelagius.

This table might have been more complicated but it would have been more confused; and I have thought it better to confine myself to the principal transmissions of inheritance or of conquests until the complete formation of the Spanish monarchy by the marriage of Ferdinand the 5th, king of Aragon, with Isabella of Castile. The kingdom of Spain then arose from the union of the provinces of these two crowns, the number being four for that of Aragon, and twenty-two for Castile, not including the lordship of Biscay and Navarre. The provinces of the crown of Aragon consist of the kingdom of that name, the kingdom of Valencia, the principality of Catalonia, and the kingdom of Majorca; those of the crown of Castile consist of the kingdom of Galicia, the provinces of Burgos, Leon, Zamora, Salamanca, Estremadura, Palencia, Valladolid, Segovia, Avila, Toro,

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Toledo, La Mancha, Murcia, Guadalaxara, Cuença, Jaen, Granada and Seville.

Though this division of Spain is the most ancient, and serves as the basis for the imposition and levying of the taxes, for the municipal laws and the nature of privileges, the modern division of Spain, with respect to the administration, is limited to thirteen provinces, kingdoms, or lordships, all of which have a captain general except Navarre, the intendant of which has the title of Viceroy. These provinces are laid down upon the general map, and form the geographical division most commonly adopted.

The order that I have followed in the description of them is the same as that which I have adopted in the Picturesque Journey through Spain, that these two works may illustrate each together. Thus both of them are divided into four parts; the first comprehending the provinces of Catalonia, Valencia, and Estremadura; the second, the four kingdoms of Andalusia; the third all the northern provinces; and the fourth those of the centre and the other Spanish possessions detached from the continent but in the Mediterranean. I shall take no notice of the Spanish colonies, as the most important of them are so well described in M. de Humboldt's work.

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No. 4.

General Map of Spain.

This map, like every other of Spain, presents the thirteen provinces which we have just been speaking of, and which we are about to describe; but I must just observe that, following the ancient division, I have incorporated the kingdom of Granada with the three others of Andalusia, that I have separated the country of the mountains of St. Andero from old Castile, and that of La Mancha from new Castile, and shall describe them by themselves. These trifling alterations are more suited to the course of the work. There are other demarcations besides this division of Spain into thirteen provinces, to facilitate the levying of the taxes and the drawing for the militia. It is subdivided into thirty provinces and into six districts, which form six separate departments; but this new organization is principally carried into effect in Castile and the kingdom of Leon; it will be mentioned under the article finances. Spain has besides two other divisions, the one relating to religion and the other to the courts of law; these will be taken notice of in the

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articles concerning the ecclesiastical and judicial administration.

Note.—There not being time to engrave maps of all the roads contained in the Itinerary, the principal ones and those of that part of the country the description of which is most detailed, have been selected.

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ACCOUNT

OF

SPAIN.

CATALONIA.

THE ROAD FROM PERPIGNAN TO THE FRONTIERS OF SPAIN, THROUGH CATALONIA.

THERE is a good road from Perpignan to Bolo, of three leagues*, which passes through a part of the plain of Roussillon. On the right we leave the Masdeu, the ancient seat of the Templars, and the villages of Pollestras, Vilamulaca, Passa, and Tresserra; and on the left, on an eminence, that of Banuls dels aspres. Bolo, now only a village, was formerly a fortified town: some of its walls and the ruins of the fortification are still to be seen. It is in a fine situation on the right bank of the Tec, and close to a fertile

* Throughout this work we shall confine ourselves to the Spanish league of 20 to a degree.

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plain. A Roman military road passed through this ancient town, the name of which was Stabulum.

Leaving Bolo we cross the Tec, the bed of which is very broad and sometimes dangerous from the swelling of the river and the shifting of its sands. In the ordinary state of it, carriages and cattle cross by the ford, and foot passengers on rafts, or in a little boat. There ought to be a bridge here. At some distance from Bolo we begin to ascend the Pyrenees by a gentle rise, which gradually becomes steeper. The road is fine, wide, and supported on the precipices by very good walls. Having travelled two leagues we arrive at the village of Ecluse, the Clausura of the Romans, and soon after reach the summit of the Pyrenees, which we cross through the Pass of Pertus, the ancient Portus: the castle of Bellegarde, standing on a lofty insulated mountain, defends this defile. There is an office here for the examination of passports, and a guardhouse.

A little farther on we come to a bridge which separates France from Spain: their limits were marked by columns which were destroyed during the last war. On crossing this bridge we are in Catalonia.

AN ACCOUNT OF CATALONIA.

Catalonia is situated at the North-East ex-

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tremity of Spain, extending 40 leagues from East to West, and 44 from North-East to South-East. It lies to the North on the Pyrenees, where it is separated from France; it is bounded on the East by the Mediterranean, on the South by the kingdom of Valencia, and on the West by Aragon.

It contains an archbishopric, seven bishoprics, eight cathedral and eighteen collegiate chapters, twenty-two abbeys, enjoying nearly episcopal privileges, a grand priory, and sixteen commanderies of the Order of Malta; two thousand seven hundred and thirty-eight parishes, two hundred and eighty-four religious houses, eighty-four hospitals, a university, fifteen colleges for the education of youth, fourteen cities, two hundred and eighty-three towns, one thousand eight hundred and six villages, twenty-two fortresses, and five ports.

Its principal towns are Barcelona, a bishop's See and the capital; Tarragona, the See of an archbishop; Urgel, Lerida, Gironne, Salsona, Vich, Tortosa, Episcopal Sees; Figueras, Aulot, Igualda, Reus, Mataro, Villa Franca de Panades, Cervera, Manresa, Palamos, &c.

This province is watered by twenty-six rivers, ten of which fall into the sea: the Ebro, the largest of them, is very important for its navigation. Catalonia has five harbours in the Mediterranean, Palamos, Cadaques, Rosas, Salou,

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and Barcelona. Its mountains make a part of the chain of the Pyrenees, which runs to the North of it from the sea on the East to Aragon on the West: the branches of it, stretching forward far into the country, form second rate mountains, of which the chief are those of Mon-Negre, Valgorguina, San-Gran, Alsinellas, Requesens, Monseny, Montserrat, &c. The principal vallies are those of Barabas, Aran, Cardons, Farrera, Andorra, Ancu, Aro, &c.

Catalonia was one of the first provinces of Spain that drew the attention of the Romans, the first in which they established their power, and also one of the first freed from the yoke of the Arabs. It was taken from the Romans by the Goths, under the conduct of Evaric their king, about the year 712; and from the Moors by the French at the end of the eighth and beginning of the ninth century. It was at that time that Barcelona became the capital of a county of the same name. After the year 839 it had sixteen counts, including Raymond V. the last of them, who died in 1172, after having ascended the throne of Aragon, in consequence of his marriage with Petronilla, the heiress to that kingdom. As long ago as the ninth century this province formed a separate sovereignty, which took a great part in the times of the division of the fiefs. The family in possession of it, who were originally French, raised it to re-

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spectable power; their dominions comprized Catalonia, Roussillon, Cerdagne, the county of Foix, and a great part of Languedoc. Being afterwards divided among several of its branches it formed separate states. This house, having ascended the throne of Aragon, extended its dominion over the islands of Majorca and Minorca, Sicily, and the kingdom of Valencia; and, at length, united under its sway the whole Spanish monarchy.

Under the counts of Barcelona, Catalonia was divided into *Vigueries*, or jurisdictions, each governed by a *Viguier (Vicarius)* or lieutenant for the counts. This kind of magistracy, which enjoyed a very extensive authority, existed even after the union of Catalonia with the Spanish monarchy. But the viceroys, or governors, on whom the king conferred the command of this province, gradually undermined the authority of the Viguiers, who ceased to enjoy the elevated state of their predecessors in the original institution. At the conclusion of the seventeenth century these magistrates had lost their most important privileges.

The political revolution which seated a branch of the royal family of France on the throne of Spain, gave a fatal blow to Catalonia. Having taken up arms against its sovereign, the province lost its privileges, laws, customs, and Vi-

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guiers, and was placed like the rest of the kingdom under Corregidors.

Until this period Catalonia may be said to have governed itself. From the middle of the eleventh century it had its own laws and local customs, which count Raymond, in 1068, substituted for the Gothic laws, which had fallen into disuse. The vassals were serfs of the Lords, as in all the countries subject to the feudal system. The custom was gradually abolished; the last serfs of Catalonia, of whom any mention is made, were the inhabitants of Remenca, whom Ferdinand the Catholic enfranchised in the year 1483.

After the union of Catalonia with the crown of Aragon, the province still had its own States, which shared the legislative power with the sovereign: they proposed to the king such laws as they thought necessary, and the monarch approved and promulgated them; or they, on the other hand, gave their sanction to those which originated with him. Those states assembled at Barcelona, and in several other towns of the principality of Catalonia: after the union of Roussillon with this province, in respect to the administration, they sometimes met at Perpignan. The deputies of the three orders of Roussillon were admitted to the assembly, distinguished, however, from those of Catalonia, who were also composed of the three orders; of the

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clergy, *nobility*, and *commons*. The first consisted of the bishops, abbots, the deputies of the chapters, and those of some religious bodies; the second of all the nobles above the age of twenty, and of Proprietors of noble fiefs; the third order was not called the *third state* but *universidades*, better expressed by the word *Commons*; for in Catalonia the name of *University* is given to the municipalities and corporations of towns. The deputies of towns admitted to the States were very few.

The States still assembled at Barcelona in 1702, under Philip V; but, as we have already said, that monarch abolished the privileges of which the Catalans were extremely jealous, and they preserved only the empty right of sending deputies to the States-General of the Spanish Monarchy, when they are convened.

Catalonia had *three military orders*, which were confined to the nobility.

The first was that of *Mountjoy*, in Latin *monte gaudio*, called by the Castillians Monfranc, and by the Catalans and Valencians, *Monjoya*. It was instituted in 1143 by Raymond Berenger, the last count of Barcelona, and confirmed in 1189 by the Pope, who subjected it to the observances of St. Basil. The uniform was white, and the Knights wore a red cross of eight points. It was united in 1221 to the order of Calatrava.

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The second, with the title of *St. George of Alfama*, was instituted in 1201 by Peter II, king of Aragon. The Castle of Alfama, at the south-east point of Catalonia, between the defile of Balaguer and the mouth of the Ebro, was the chief seat of it. This order was subjected to the observances of St. Augustin. The Knights wore likewise a red cross, but close, like that of Montesa at present. They were under the government of a grand-master; of whom there were ten, the first was in 1202, and the last in 1400, the period when it was united with the order of Montesa, which had been instituted for some time.

The third was the order of the *Hatchet*, whose chief seat was at Tortosa. It was instituted in 1150 by Raymond Bérenger, with the view of honouring and rewarding the women of Tarragona, for bravely defending their town against the Moors. The female knights wore a red hatchet, and took precedence of the men on public occasions.* This order has long been extinct.

* This brings to mind the act of heroism of Jane Hachette, who at the head of the women of Beauvais defended that town in 1472.

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The Road from the Pass of the Pertus on the Frontier of France to Gironne, 11 leagues.*

Bridge at the Pass of Pertus to	LEAGUES.
La Junquera, (a town)	1
Le Llobregat, (river but no bridge)	
Hostal-nou, (a hamlet)	2
La Muga, (a river and bridge of Molins)	
Figueras, (a town)	1½
Santa Locaya, (a village)	1
Fluvia, (a river without a bridge, a ferry)	
Bascura, (a village)	1
Pass of Oriols, (a hamlet)	½
Villa de Muls, (a village)	1
Medina, (a village)	2
Le Ter, (a river, and the Mayor bridge)	
Pont Mayor, (a village)	½
Gironne, (a town)	½

After leaving the bridge of Pertus, which separates France from Spain, we descend to the foot of the Pyrenees by a very fine road which takes us to La Junquera.

La Junquera is a little town, situated at the entrance of a plain, which Strabo tells us was fertile in flax and spart, or sea-rush, whence it acquired the name of *Campus juncarius*, and the town that of *Juncaria*. It has a parish church, an office for the king's duties, and a guard of fifty men. It has little trade, though populous enough: there is but one inn in the town

* The road from Perpignan to Barcelona, Saragossa, Valencia, and Madrid.

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and that a bad one; yet compared to the *posadas* we meet with in many parts of Spain, it may pass as a good one. La Junquera is the birth-place of Antonio de Aguilara, an able physician of the 16th century, known by his writings on the practice of physic.

At this first office for duties travellers are usually very strictly searched: but it is easily avoided by means of a few *piecettes* (coins worth 10d. English each) unless the chief officers are present, or too great a crowd of curious spectators flock about the carriage. But there is one thing not to be avoided if a man travels in his own carriage, and that is paying an enormous duty, amounting generally to three-fourths of the value of the carriage. The only way of escaping this expence is to engage to send the carriage out of the country within a settled time. In that case it is necessary to have a letter of recommendation or credit to some person established at Junquera to answer for the performance of your engagement, by binding himself to pay *the supposed duty* for you. The merchants at Perpignan take care to furnish travellers with the letters necessary for complying with the formality.

When we leave Junquera we have no longer a fine road: it is stony, neglected, and cut up with gutters. It runs a long way by the side of the mountains through passages more or less

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narrow, crooked and deep. We cross seven times over the river of Llobregat, which by its sharp windings, makes this way dangerous at times: it is frequently dry, but in rainy weather it compels travellers to stop. After proceeding two leagues we come to the Hostal-nou, and pass the river Muga over the bridge of Molins de Rey and enter the district of Ampurdan, with an immense plain before us, carefully cultivated, and full of fruit and olive trees. Fruit, wheat, rice, vegetables, flax, and hemp cover the earth: the whole is beautiful, smiling and fertile. After travelling a league through this rich plain we arrive at Figueras.

Figueras is a little town situated in the middle of the plain. It has a parish church, two convents, one of Cordeliers and another of Capuchins, an hospital, and a small garrison. The streets are tolerably wide, and there is a square with piazzas round it. This would be handsome if the houses in it were better built. The town contains about 4000 inhabitants, but has little trade, and the chief of what it has is owing to its proximity to France. There are two passable inns, in regard to eating and drinking; but the beds are hard, as is the custom in Spain. The luggage of travellers is searched here by the revenue officers, who are got rid of as at Junquera. French money passes at Figueras: it is taken at all the shops, and

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the loss upon it is frequently no more than a real, or two-pence farthing English in a Louis d'or; never more than five pence English. Travellers should take care to change their French money here for Spanish, for the farther one advances into the kingdom the greater is the loss incurred in the change.

In the reign of Ferdinand VI. a citadel was built near Figueras, which cost immense sums. It stands on a little eminence, and bears the name of the Castle of St. Ferdinand: it displays a magnificence rarely met with in fortresses. The walls are of free stone and thick; the moats deep and wide, and the approaches mined. The principal cordon is not seen from without; the ramparts, magazines, stables, cellars, caserns, and hospital are defended by a casemate; it is provided with every thing necessary for its defence; and the firm bare rock on which it is built has been turned to such advantage, that trenches can scarcely be opened on any side, the ground being every where stony. This fortress is an irregular pentagon, the shape of which may be compared to the flaps of the pointed pockets formerly worn. It stands nearly in the middle of a great plain, which it can therefore defend on every side, serving as an intrenched camp of from 16 to 17,000 men. It is one of the finest fortifications in Europe. Political motives, the discussion of which does not belong to our

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subject, caused it to be reduced in the last war, but the event was not attended with any reflection on the Spanish valour. In the council-room of the fortress there are still to be seen spots of ink, occasioned by the rage of an officer who threw his pen against the wall, determining not to sign the capitulation, or in despair at having been obliged to sign it. Since then the walls have been whitened, but through negligence or by chance, *the honourable spot* still appears.

On leaving Figueras we proceed by an uneven road, badly kept, full of stones and mud, which leads to the village of Santa Locaya, and farther on to the river Fluvia, which we cross by a ford when the waters are low, or in a bad ferry boat when they are high: it is impassable in any manner after a hard rain, or during the melting of the snows.

Leaving the village of Bascura to the left we go through the pass of Oriols, and the villages of Villa de Muls and Medina, and thence to the Mayor bridge, on which we cross the Ter. A considerable number of houses in two lines form a kind of a village here, which may be considered as the suburbs of Gironne, where we now arrive.

Gironne, in Latin Gerunda, in Spanish Gerona, is a fortified town, situated on the side and at the foot of a steep mountain. The Ter runs

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through the town, which is surrounded with good walls, flanked with fortifications, and defended by two forts erected on the mountain. This is an ancient city, and formerly gave its name to the eldest son of the kings of Aragon, who took the title of prince of Gironne: it is also famous for the different sieges it has sustained, and the defence it has almost always made. In 787, when it was besieged by Louis, king of Aquitania, the son of Charlemagne, it was surrendered to him by the Christians, who put the Moorish garrison to death. In 1462 it was the refuge of the queen of Aragon and her son, when pursued by the Catalonian rebels. Count Pallas, one of the rebel generals besieged and took it, and was about to storm the castle, into which the queen had retreated, when a French army commanded by the Sire of Albret appeared and delivered that princess. In 1636 it was taken by a French army; and again, in 1694, in seven days after the trenches were opened. It was one of the first towns that violated the oath which they had taken to Philip V, and it opened its gates in 1705 to the Archduke Charles, acknowledging him king of Spain, under the name of Charles III. For six years it persisted in this conduct, sustained a long siege, and was at length reduced to obedience by a French army under the command of the duke de Noailles in 1711. Being again besieged in the follow-

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ing year by the Austrians and Catalonians, it was defended by the Count de Brancas, who, after a blockade of eight months forced the besiegers to retire.

The history of the town of Gironne was published in 1673 by Pere Roig: it is a work full of absurdities and fabulous traditions, and it is singular that it should have been written at the time when criticism flourished in Spain, when the marquis de Mondejar, don Nicolas Antonio, and don Josef Pellicer, were clearing ecclesiastical and civil history of all the fables with which it had been long inundated by the old writers. Gironne is the birth-place of Antic Roca, a philosopher of the sixteenth century, author of a Latin and Catalonian dictionary; and also the birth place of Rafael Mox, a physician of the 17th century, who wrote on the diseases of women.

Extent and Population. The town is nearly of a triangular form. The streets are narrow and crowded, but the houses are tolerably well built. It has a good many churches and convents. The inhabitants lead a sad and undiversified kind of life. They have no company, no theatre, no kind of dissipation or pleasure; every one seems to live alone. The population amounts to above 14,000 persons, a fourth of whom at least is made up of priests, monks and nuns, scholars and students.

Ecclesiastical Administration. Gironne is the see of a bishop, suffragan of Tarragona. His diocese is divided into four

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arch-deaconries, and contains 470 parishes, two collegiate chapters, and eight abbeys or priories, which enjoy almost episcopal rights. There is likewise a collegiate chapter in the church of St. Felix. There are five parishes in the town, nine convents for men and three for women, a nunnery of Beguines, a college, seminary, general hospital, and a charitable asylum.

It is said that in the commencement of the third century,* a council of twenty-four bishops assembled at Gironne, and that the pagans setting fire to the building in which it was held, all the prelates perished in it. It is more certain, that since the time of that dubious event, several provincial councils have been held here: one in 517, composed of ten bishops, in which divers canons of ecclesiastical discipline were made; another in 1068, of which cardinal Hughes was the president, in which fifteen canons were made against simony and the incontinency of the clergy; and another ten years after relative to the same objects, and to tithes.

Civil and Military Administration. The king appoints a governor, who acts both in a civil and military capacity. There is besides at Gironne a king's lieutenant, a mayor, a governor of the little castle of Mont-Jouy, an alcade major for the administration of justice, a municipal body of twelve regidors, and a small garrison.

Industry. This town carries on but very little trade, and the only manufactories it has consist of a few looms for stockings, coarse cloths, and woollen and cotton stuffs, which have only been established in the asylum within twenty years.

Public Edifices. The cathedral and collegiate churches are the two most remarkable edifices in Gironne. The former is built on the ridge of the mountain, which gives it a very elevated foundation: it displays a majestic front at the top of three grand terraces, ornamented with granite balustrades:

* 2d July, 287.

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we ascend to it by a superb flight of steps, eighty-six in number, and of a breadth the whole extent of the church. The front is decorated in a bad taste, with three orders of architecture, Doric, Corinthian and Composite; it is flanked with two hexagon towers. The interior of the church is large and handsome, it has only a nave in the Gothic style: the chief altar is insulated, and consists of a pavilion, supported by four columns of mixed marble; the pavilion, the tabernacle, and the steps are of silver, ornamented with precious stones and raised figures. The table of this altar has four faces, three are of vermilion, decorated with figures similar to the preceding, and it is asserted that the front face is of gold; it is full of precious stones.

The monuments of Raymond Bérenger, count of Barcelona, and of the countess Mahault, or Mahalta, his consort, are placed against the wall of the sanctuary, one on each side.

The treasury of the cathedral is very rich in chalices, paterns, staves, crosses, shrines, relics, censers, lamps and other things of gold and silver, set with jewels.

The collegiate, or church of St. Feliu, formerly St. Mary's, *extra muros*, is of Gothic architecture with a body and two aisles divided by pillars, with a large and beautiful casement in the middle. There is a very high and very old tower in front of the façade. The body of St. Narcisus is here preserved in a chapel built at the expence of the bishop Lorenzana, who died in 1796: it has the form of two ellipses joined, one of about forty-three feet in diameter, the other forty by seventy-eight in length. It is coated with a coloured marble, ornamented with pilasters of the composite order, and terminates with an oratory, or small chapel, in a recess, which the Spaniards call *camarin*.

There is a very curious piece of architecture at Gironne, in the Capuchin convent; an Arabian bath, constructed in the most elegant style, consisting of columns standing on an octagon stylobate, or low base, encircling a reservoir to contain water.

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About a mile from Gironne there is a Benedictine nunnery, dedicated to St. Daniel, under the government of an abbess. This is one of the principal in Catalonia of the order of St. Benet; and only ladies who can bring proofs of nobility are admitted.

Public Instruction. The University of Gironne, founded in 1521, by Philip II. was abolished in 1715, by Philip V.; at that time the Jesuits had all public instruction in their hands, except two chairs of philosophy and theology established out of their house. After the suppression of that order, the public instruction was concentrated in one college, where there are nine hundred students, who are taught the Latin grammar, rhetoric, philosophy, and theology. The library of the Jesuits was left; it is a very extensive and well-chosen one: it has been opened to the public. There are, besides, three other chairs supported at the expence of the town.

The community of the Beguine nuns keep schools for the instruction of poor girls gratuitously, and a boarding-school for young ladies. This institution is due to the bishop Don Thomas de Lorenzana, who held out a helping hand to the unfortunate, and who, with a generosity guided by good sense, encouraged throughout his diocese, agriculture, manufactures, and all the useful arts.

The first Road from Gironne to Barcelona, inland, 16 Leagues.

Gironne to	LEAGUES.
Hostal de la Ceba (some houses)	2½
Las Mallorquinas (a village)	2¾
Hostalric (a village)	2
Battlloric (a village)	1
San-Celons (a village)	1
Linarez (a village)	1
La Roca (a village)	1
La Tordera (a river and bridge)	

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	LEAGUES.
Montmelo (a village)	1
Los Hostalz (some houses)	1
Moncayo (a village)	1
Saint-André (a village)	1
Barcelona (a city)	1

It would be useless to describe this way; the roads are very bad, and the inns detestable. They are now frequented only by muleteers; it is, however, the post road.

Another Road by the Sea-Side, 17 Leagues, 1 Quarter.

Gironne to	LEAGUES.
La Granota, (three or four houses)	3½
La Tordera, (a river without a bridge)	
Tordera, (a village)	1½
Malgrat, (a village)	¾
Pineda, (a village)	1
Calella, (a little town)	1
San-Pol, (a village)	1
(Le Bellet, a river without a bridge)	
Canet de Mar, (a village)	1½
Santa-Maria de Mar, (a village)	¾
Arens de Mar, or Santa-Maria de Arens	¾
Mataro, (a town)	1
Vilasar de Baix, (a village)	¾
Premia de Baix, (a village)	¾
Masnou, (a village)	¾
Mongat, (a village)	¼
Bagalona, (a village)	¾
San-Adria, (a village)	¾
Le Bezos, (a river without a bridge)	
Barcelona, (a city)	¾

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There is a very broad road, but very ill kept, leading from Gironne to the river Tordera, five leagues distant; it passes through a light soil, without substance, which becomes moist with the least rain; it is very muddy in winter and dusty in summer; it is cut at all times with deep ruts, which render it rough and jolting; and it is scarcely passable by foot passengers. As it approaches the river it becomes still worse, and sometimes dangerous; the soil is softer, the road grows narrower, and is frequently covered with pools of water which conceal dangerous places, from which it is difficult to clear one's-self.

Almost the whole country is uncultivated. We proceed to Granata, a poor hamlet, where there is a bad inn not far from the Tordera. On the left we see Blanas, a little town situated on the sea-side, at the mouth of the river; there are some leather manufactories there. It was the native place of the historian Gaspard Roig y Jalpi, who wrote the History of Gironne, of which we have spoken.

Arriving at *Tordera*, we cross the river by a bad wooden bridge; it is sometimes forded without difficulty; but, with the least rain, it becomes an impetuous torrent, which inundates the neighbouring country. It is the custom to cross this river in boats when it begins to fall; but through the impatience of travellers it some-

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times happens, that a boat, on reaching the middle of the current, has been carried away and overset by the rapidity of the water. The confidence of the country people, or their avarice which blinds them to the danger, frequently deceives strangers, and many have been victims of it.

After crossing this river, we come to the village of the same name; then to those of *Malgrat* and of *Pineda*, in each of which there is a forge for anchors, and a distillery for brandy: the women and girls are employed in making lace and blonds. One league further on is the little town Calella, in a charming situation. It is well built, and contains about two thousand four hundred inhabitants, a parish church, a convent of monks, an hospital, forges for anchors, and distilleries for brandy; various laces and fishing-nets are made here. The inn is a tolerably good one, and is always abundantly provided with fish.

The sea-coast begins here, on which account this way has been called the *sea-side road*; in fact, we never lose sight of the sea again until we get to Barcelona; there is a constant succession of villages and houses.

We now arrive at *San-Pol*, a new village, situated on the river Bellet, which we cross by a ford. Its population is about two thousand persons, and is daily increasing.

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At *Canet de Mar*, a considerable village, there is a distillery for brandy.

At *Santa-Maria del Mar*, another village, we find as much industry and activity as in the preceding ones; at *Arenez de Mar*, or *Santa-Maria de Arenez*, there are three thousand five hundred inhabitants. There is a beautiful parish church, a convent of Capuchins, forges for anchors, manufactories of cotton and silk stockings, and callico; a school for navigation, and a dock for the building of small vessels.

These villages are all on the sea-coast, and their situation is agreeable; they possess a pleasing air of studied neatness. The activity of the inhabitants is every where apparent: the women and children make laces and blonds; the men are employed in fishing, navigation, and commerce. The coast is covered with small vessels and barks, which carry on a coasting trade in Spain, Roussillon, and Italy, and which sometimes even stretch away to Spanish America.

We travel this road with pleasure, and do not perceive the length of the way from *Calella* to *Mataro*, the distance of which is five leagues.

Mataro is an ancient town; it existed under the Romans; but more inland, on a place where vestiges of its ancient buildings are still found: being rebuilt by the Moors on the spot which it now occupies, it was limited to a middling extent by an enclosure of walls. Within twenty

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years it has increased rapidly. It is thought to be the ancient *Iluro* of Ptolemy and Pomponius Mela. Under the Moors it took the name which it still bears.

Mataro is pleasantly situated on the sea-side, at the extremity of a small fertile plain, which terminates at the foot of a chain of woody mountains. The old town, built on an eminence, retains its enclosure, its walls, and its gates. Its streets are narrow, yet less crooked than those of the ancient towns of Spain: the largest, called *la Riera*, which runs through the middle, is handsome, broad, straight, tolerably well built, and watered by a small stream, with a row of trees by the side of it. It would make an agreeable walk, if the stream were widened and a second row of trees added, with some benches among them. The new town, which was perhaps a *faubourg* to the preceding one, is much larger, more open, and better constructed. It is lately built, and runs towards the east as far as the sea-side; the streets are broad, long, and straight; the houses are agreeable, simple, and most of them ornamented with paintings in fresco. It daily increases in extent. The surrounding country is fertile and well cultivated: the town has many fountains of excellent water.

The approach to Mataro, in coming from Gironne, is beautiful; we enter by a superb

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street, in which all the inns are situated: that called *Mont Serrat* is excellent. Leaving the town, the view on the Barcelona road is still more magnificent.

Population. Mataro is become a considerable town by its industry and commerce; new inhabitants flock thither, and its population, which, about 1770, was from four to five thousand persons, is now upwards of twenty-five thousand.

Clergy. It has a parish church, three convents of monks, two of nuns, and a hospital.

Administration. There is a military and civil governor, an alcade major for the administration of justice, a port-captain, a minister, an auditor of the navy, and a garrison of two squadrons of cavalry.

Public edifices. The church of the Brothers of the *Ecolapie* has a tolerably fine nave, ornamented with pilasters of the Ionic order. The parish church has a nave, which would be a fine one, if it were not so disfigured by the small pilasters placed against the intermediate piers of the chapels, and the extreme smallness of which is a contrast to the grandeur of the building. In the chapel of *Our Lady of Sorrows* are two good pictures by *Viladomat*, one of which represents Saint James on horseback striking the Moors to the ground.

Agriculture. At Mataro the labourers form a society distinguished for their work and wealth.

Manufactories. In this town there are four manufactories of printed callicoes, two of callico, seven of lace, seventeen of blonds, two of soap, fifty-two looms for silk stockings, one hundred and sixteen for cotton stockings, forty-eight for silk stuffs and velvets, eighty-nine for ribbons and silk galloons, six distilleries for brandy, five manufactories of sail-cloth, eight tan-yards, and eighteen manufactories of silk twists, which yearly make on an average about twenty thousand pounds weight.

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The road which leads from Mataro, and which runs along the sea-coast is a fine one. On the right we see a chain of hills with green trees, and a number of single houses. On the heights are the villages *Cabrera*, *Vilasar de dalt*, and *Premia de dalt*. We shortly after come to *Vilasar de baix*, where there are some brandy distilleries. *Premia de baix* is agreeably situated; the inhabitants are active and laborious. We afterwards pass the *Masnou*, which was formerly only a solitary hotel, but which became almost all at once a very large village. The village *Montgat* is about a mile farther on; we then cross a small mountain by a deep cut made to open the road, having a wall on each side to keep up the banks. On the top of this mountain is the castle of *Montgat*: it has no other merit than its situation, which commands the sea, and serves to protect the coast against the incursions of the barbarians.

Continuing along the sea side we come to the villages of *Bagalona* and *San-Andria*. Here we see, to the right and left, an immense curtain of verdant foliage, formed by a thick wood of poplars, covering the banks of the Bezos. This river is usually crossed by a ford; but is frequently rendered impassable by the waters; it easily swells and overflows in a manner the more dangerous, as its sands shift and form excavations, in which the traveller may lose himself.

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The small forest of poplars on the opposite bank of the river, is passed in five or six minutes. After leaving this forest we discover, to the right, the village of *San-Marti*, situated at the foot of a mountain, and enter into a long fertile plain covered with trees of all kinds, watered by numerous streams, and travel through a beautiful avenue of nut trees all the way to the gates of Barcelona. This road, which runs in this manner for a league, is well laid out, and would be pleasant if it were better kept.

As we proceed, the scene becomes more lively. We are surrounded by a country where, in the fine season, we see all the riches of nature. Every thing is animated; the fields are full of active husbandmen, the roads covered with carriages and cattle.

A great number of buildings gradually show themselves to the right, and continue almost from the middle of the plain to the side of the neighbouring mountains. They have the appearance of being a considerable town, but these habitations, numerous without confusion, are country houses extending to the villages of *Sarria*, *Horta*, and *Gracia*, which are themselves delightfully situated.

Barcelona then presents itself with a majestic appearance. We perceive the whole extent of its buildings, and, on the opposite side, the mountain of *Mont-Jouy*, which commands

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it. We enter the town by the new gate, called the gate of *France*.

Barcelona, in Latin *Barcinona*, in Spanish *Bacelona*, is the capital of the principality of Catalonia, and one of the principal towns of Spain. It formerly existed under the Romans. It is celebrated for its situation, extent, the number of its population, the richness of the country, the industry of its inhabitants, its commerce and its opulence.

It was founded by the Carthaginians, who gave it the name of their General, *Annibal Barcino*; it passed successively under the dominion of the Romans, Goths, Saracens or Moors, and French; the last took it from the Moors in the ninth century. It afterwards had its own particular sovereigns, under the title of the counts of Barcelona, who annexed Catalonia to the crown of Aragon, and subsequently to the Spanish monarchy, when they became possessors of it in the sixteenth century.

Extent. The different limits of Barcelona in the various periods of history are still perceptible. The town formerly extended only to *la Rambla*; but it had six hundred houses to the west, which were demolished in the eighteenth century, in order to build the citadel.

The streets are by no means handsome, especially those within the old limits: most of them are narrow and crooked; there are however some that are wide; such are the *Carrer ampla* or broad street, the streets of *La Porta Ferissa, La Riera de San Juan, San Pere mes baix, San Pere me salt, La Canuda del pi,* the square of *Sainte Anne*, which might be called a fine street if it were a little longer. In the new town

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beyond *la Rambla* there are also some good streets, as those of *St. Paul, Carmes, St. Antony*, and above all the new street of *Conde del assalto*, which is very straight and long, and leads from *la Rambla* to the ramparts.

All the streets are paved with square, flat, smooth stones; but for want of attention, they sink and form inequalities where carriages pass. An aqueduct, or rather a common sewer runs under most of the streets in the old limits; it is covered in with long narrow stones, unconnected and badly put together; these stones start and sink. An unwholesome vapour exhales from it in summer, produced by the filth which stagnates there.

At night these streets are lighted by lamps fixed to the walls of the houses and squares: they are placed in a line on both sides at small distances from one another. The squares in Barcelona are all small and irregular; and though there are a great many of them, there is but one that deserves the name; which is that of the governor's palace; it is square, spacious, very open, and ornamented on one side by the front of houses, on another by the General's palace, on the opposite side by the beautiful building *la Lonja* or the Exchange, and on the fourth by the sea-gate, having on the left the new building of the Custom-house, and on the right the magnificent promenade of the quay, called the wall of the sea.

This would be a superb square, if the design of throwing back the sea-gate were executed, and a public monument, a fountain, or a statue of a monarch placed in the centre.

Edifices. Though the town is well built, there are none of those sumptuous palaces to be found in it, none of those superb hotels, in which architecture and sculpture arrest the eye of a stranger. The houses in general are of a tolerably pleasing structure, but very simple: they run from four to five stories high; they have large windows ornamented with a variety of balconies almost all new, two-thirds of the town having been built within about 30 years. On most of the fronts of the houses there are paintings in fresco. The house of *Dufay* in the street of *Regomir*, and that of *Cardona*, no

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the duke of *Medina Celi's*, in the square of *Cocurilla*, are remarkable. Both of them are ancient; the former is built upon the site of the palace of *Gomir*, a king of the Moors, who, it is said, reigned until this town was taken by the French in 802. These two are noble and elegant houses.

Population. The civil wars in Catalonia in the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries; the five sieges which Barcelona sustained in the space of sixty-two years; the decline of its manufactures and the stagnation of its immense commerce, has much diminished its population, which was formerly considerable. So early as 1715, after the siege of the preceding year, it was reduced to thirty-seven thousand persons; but peace soon restored industry, the arts and manufactures were resumed; commerce returned with vigour; new inhabitants came in crowds, and in the course of half a century the population was increased sixteen thousand persons. In 1769 there were about fifty-four thousand individuals: the increase afterwards became more rapid, and was more than doubled in the space of eighteen years; for by the numbering of the people in 1787 there were one hundred and eleven thousand four hundred and ten inhabitants, not counting the army, which is generally from nine to ten thousand men, and foreigners, of whom there are a considerable number. In 1798 there were one hundred and thirty thousand inhabitants in Barcelona. The population would still be greater if the calculation were extended beyond the ramparts. There are now in it twenty thousand five hundred and eight families, ten thousand seven hundred and sixty-seven houses, eighty-two churches, fifty convents of monks and nuns, thirty fountains, and many large buildings.

Clergy. Barcelona has an episcopal see, one cathedral, and one collegiate chapter, eighty-two churches, twenty-six convents of monks, eighteen of nuns, two houses of congregations of oratory and missions, three *beaterios*, five hospitals, one seminary, one mont-de-piété, and one tribunal of the inquisition. The bishopric of this town existed under the Gothic kings; it was superseded under the Moors, but was

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re-established by count Raymond Berenger in 1146, and made by him a suffragan to the metropolitan of Tarragona.

This diocese contains two chapters and two hundred and fifty-three parishes. The clergy of the cathedral is numerous; its chapter is composed of eleven dignitaries, twenty-four canons, and one hundred and forty-two priests of the low choir, each possessed of a benefice. The habit of the canons is scarlet, with an ermine surplice. The collegiate chapter, under the title of St. Anne, is composed of fifteen canons, four prebends, with a prior for the president. There are more monks in Barcelona than in any other town in Spain; each parish has from twenty to thirty priests; besides a great number that are not attached to any church, and many others who perform service in the oratories and chapels of the nunneries. In 1790 there were one hundred and thirty-six Franciscans in the procession on St. Anthony's day, and those were only a part of the monks of the two houses which that order possesses in the town.

There were two councils held at Barcelona in the time of the Goths, one in 540 or 541, and the other in 599 or 600. The acts of the latter are unknown; but the former made many canons relative to ecclesiastical discipline: the third canon prohibits the ecclesiastics from shaving their beards, and from letting their hair grow.

Hospitals and Asylums. There are *six hospitals* at Barcelona, a charity house, and one asylum. The hospital of St. Anthony's abbey is no longer made any use of, having been suppressed since the year 1791. That of St. Sever is for priests; and in it are contained one for pilgrims, one for orphans, and one for incurables.

The most considerable of all is the General Hospital; it receives the sick of both sexes, and foundlings. In 1790, some young women who had been sent to Paris for six years to receive the necessary education were established here, under the name of the Sisters of St. Lazarus; but no advantage resulted from the plan. The house for the convalescents is large, well distributed, and well aired.

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The Asylum is for all sorts of poor, and children. The women and children are employed in spinning, knitting, and making lace; and the men in carding or combing hemp, wool, and cotton; and making tissues. There are commonly one thousand four hundred poor, a thousand of whom work, the others are either too young or maniacs; there are three hundred of the last.

Civil and Military Administration. A captain-general, or governor, and an intendant of the principality of Catalonia, reside in this town; it is also the seat of the royal audience, or supreme tribunal of the province.

The military staff consists of a military and civil governor, a lieutenant of the king, a major and two aide-majors. There is a contador and war auditor, a port-captain, a marine minister and an auditor, a foundery for cannon, a considerable arsenal, and a numerous garrison, which usually consists of a regiment of cavalry or dragoons, four battalions of Spanish guards and Walloons, two regiments of infantry and one battalion of artillery. The civil government consists of five-and-thirty noble regidors, a procureur-général, a syndic *personero*, and two alcades-majors, who administer justice.

Fortifications. Barcelona is a fortified town; its fortifications were formerly calculated to make a long resistance. It is impregnable on the side towards the sea, it not being deep enough to permit large ships to approach; it is guarded on the land side with many bastions, the approaches to which are defended by many advanced works, and principally by a citadel, situated at the north-east point, and by the fort of Mont-Juoy, situated on the summit of a mountain at the south-east point.

Public Instruction. There was formerly an university at Barcelona in which the sciences were taught; it was suppressed at the beginning of the 18th century, by Philip V. This building, which is at the extremity of *la Rambla*, and which is called *Los estudios*, is at present used as barracks. Since that period there have been only schools for theology

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and philosophy, which are kept by ecclesiastics under the inspection of the bishop. There are private schools kept by several religious orders. There is a private school for mathematics, for engineer officers and young soldiers; fortification is taught there.

There is a valuable collection of the productions of nature at the house of a private person. *Don Jacques Salvador*, an apothecary of Barcelona, took a liking to Natural History, and applied himself to it with success at the commencement of the 18th century; a time when this science was little cultivated in Spain: he formed a collection, and augmented it; his cabinet of Natural History soon became very curious, and his descendants have preserved it with care. It contains some Roman antiquities, sepulchral urns, vases, medallions, &c.; a fine collection of Spanish marble, a great many minerals, congellations, crystallizations, a quantity of the wealth of the new world, and a valuable collection of shells. This cabinet merited the particular attention of *Tournefort*. That famous botanist having a great esteem for Salvador, made him a present of a fine herbal, which is still to be seen, and which contains a great many plants from the Levant.

There are two public libraries in the town, one belonging to the school for surgery, and the other to the convents of the Dominicans of Saint-Catherine. The former is only for works on surgery, and some parts of medicine. The other is considerable: moral, scholastic, and ascetic theology, jurisprudence, especially the canon law, paripatetic philosophy, and history, particularly national ones, form the principal part of it. It has very few modern, foreign books; but there are excellent and valuable ones of the different kinds we have mentioned.

Though the means of instruction are few at Barcelona, and the establishments that might assist it are scarce, the Catalonians, in their activity, their zeal, and their desire of instruction, find resources which enable them to surmount every obstacle. This zeal, which never quits them, has been the means of establishing four academies at Barcelona, which

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without patronage or revenue is maintained solely by the emulation of the members who compose them.

The first, of Jurisprudence, is formed by the most eminent lawyers of the town.

The second, of Practical Medicine, long languished; but recovered itself in 1790; made a certain advance, and changed its form in correcting its institution. It prescribed to itself every useful labour, and obtained association with the Royal Society of Medicine at Paris.

The third, of Natural Philosophy, principally owes its existence to the liberality of one of its members, the marquis of Llupia, who generously made it a present of his interesting collection of philosophical instruments and machines, and his extensive and well chosen library.

The fourth, of History, is chiefly occupied on the history of Spain, and more particularly on that of Catalonia; its researches have already been interesting. In the year 1791 it met with a loss not easily repaired, in the person of D. Jacobo Caresmar, a regular canon, and an able antiquary, and one who had a profound knowledge of the geography and of the ecclesiastical history of his country.

Barcelona has not produced any great poets: this town, however, formerly had a fraternity of *gaie-science*, which was instituted at the end of the 14th century, in the same manner as that which existed at Toulouse, and which has continued to our times, under the name of *Academie des jeux floraux*.

The most distinguished persons born in that town, are Pedro Bossan, a poet of the 16th century; the historian John Pujades; the physician Andreu; and a female, Jane Morel; all three of the last century. This lady was at once a theologian, philosopher, lawyer, mistress of languages, and musician. Jacobo Salvador, a naturalist, and Antonio Viladomat, a painter, equally honoured their country in the 18th century.

Antiquities and Monuments. Barcelona was a town of

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importance under the Romans, who embellished it, and their works bore the marks of their grandeur and magnificence. Most of them have perished. An amphitheatre occupied the place which is now covered with houses between the street of the Boquera and Trinity-square : the spot for a long time retained the name of Arenaria ; but there remain no traces of it.

In a niche on the grand staircase of the college of the Carmes of la Rambla there is a colossal half foot of white marble; it is a woman's foot, with a sandal on, and finely carved.

On the ground of the parish church of St. Michael there was formerly a remarkable pavement, of which there are now but remnants ; it is a mosaic, composed with little white and blue stones, representing tritons and fishes.

The water was carried to Barcelona by an aqueduct; of which there remains a very lofty arch at the entrance of the street of the Capellans ; there is nothing remarkable in its structure ; it is only very massive and solid. It seems to run towards the cathedral church and towards the remains of the temple which are still to be seen behind this church, and of which we shall presently speak. There is room to believe that it took up the water on the mountain of Colserola, in the neighbourhood of Barcelona, where there are vestiges of an aqueduct found, which appears to be of the same structure.

A basin of white marble serves at present as a cistern to a fountain in the house of the archdeacon, near the cathedral ; it forms a parallelogram, rounded at the four corners. Only three fronts of it are to be seen ; the fourth is concealed by a wall. These three fronts are covered with reliefs.

Some interesting remains of a great and superb monument is found in Paradise street, behind the cathedral; it is the highest spot of the town, and centre of the ancient Barcelona.

There remain six large fluted columns with capitals of the

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Corinthian order, of white marble; they are 29 feet 10 lines high, including the bases and capitals, and are supported by pedestals from 7 to 8 inches; the plinths of the pedestals are of the greatest simplicity. The capitals have been injured; but the remains show that they were wrought with taste and delicacy. These columns are shut up in a house, and cased in the thickness of the walls; they reach from the ground of the house higher than the second story; but we cannot trace them farther.

There were formerly public baths at Barcelona; there are two streets of that town which have taken the name of them; they are called *Carrer dels bans* in the Catalonian dialect, *Calle de los banos* in Spanish: in a house in the street of this name, which is at the corner of the Boquera, there is still a remarkable monument, which can only be attributed to the Moors: it consists of several pieces, supported by columns rather misshapen, with vaults in the shape of a horse-shoe

The walls of the court of a house which is falling into ruins on the square of the Cucurulla, and which belongs to the Pinos, are ornamented with many antique sculptures; such as medallions, some heads of emperors, an unknown head with this inscription: AVGVSTVS PATER;* a little statue of Bacchus, wanting the head, but of exquisite workmanship; a figure in bass-relief in a gallery over the court. This house was in a manner deserted and left open to every body; intruders daily broke or carried off some of these antiques. It has just been rebuilt.

They tell an anecdote singular enough concerning it. Pinos, to whom it belonged at the beginning of the 18th century, was one of the principal leaders of the Catalonian rebellion; this house was almost destroyed by the bombs during the siege of Barcelona in 1713 and in 1714; Pinos sometime after, when he was dying,

* It is finely executed.

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recommended to his son not to have it repaired, that its ruins might be a monument of his fidelity to the sovereign to whom he had devoted himself, and of his hatred to Philip V. His descendants allowed the house to go to ruin till the journey which the reigning king took into Catalonia.

Public Edifices. Some of the public buildings of Barcelona deserve the attention of the lovers of the arts, both for their exterior beauty and for what they contain within.

The cathedral church, the building of which was begun at the end of the 13th century, is not yet finished; the portal yet remains to be done. We ascend to it by large steps of free-stone, which extend the whole breadth, and are in a bad state. Yet for upwards of three hundred years a duty has been imposed on the marriage licences given by the ecclesiastical court, and the produce of it assigned for the building of this portal. This duty, which has continued to be levied, has already furnished sufficient sums for the purpose, and yet the work is not even begun. The whole appearance of this church is majestic: its length is one hundred and sixty feet, and breadth sixty-two. The nave and aisles are separated by twelve large Gothic pillars, formed by clusters of columns of various sizes. There are some obscure galleries, each ornamented by nine small columns over the arches which connect the twelve large pillars. The aisles turn, and meet behind the sanctuary. In the middle of the space between the great door and the choir, there is a great octagon dome, in Gothic architecture; it has eight galleries, ornamented with little columns and balustrades.

The sanctuary is formed by ten pillars, smaller than those of the aisles, which meet at the top, forming a semi-circle, where the great altar is, which is also of the Gothic style, and of delicate workmanship. By the side of the door of the vestry there are two sepulchral urns of wood, containing the ashes of Raymond Bérenger, count of Barcelona, and the countess, his wife, the founders of this church. The sanctuary stands over a subterranean chapel, where the relics of

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Saint Eulalia, patroness of the town, are preserved in a superb shrine.

The choir is in the middle of the nave; it is decorated on the outside by very slight columns with various ornaments, and the part about the door in front of the principal entrance of the church, called in Spanish *Trascoro*, is pargeted with red and yellow marble. There are two statues of saints and two pieces of bass-relief. The door of the choir is in the middle, between two columns of the Corinthian order; surmounted by a balustrade. The whole of this decoration is in white marble. In 1509, Charles I. having held a chapter of the Golden Fleece, the armorials of the knights who composed it were placed above the stalls, with inscriptions to preserve the memory of it.

The subterranean chapel of Saint Eulalia is very handsome; the others are remarkable only for some paintings by Antonio Viladomat and Emanuel Tramullas.

The cloister at the side of the church is extensive.* The treasury is fine, but not equal in magnificence to those of many other churches in Spain.

Convent of la Merci. The church is large; its front is composed of two stories of architecture, the Corinthian and the Ionic; its portal is of the Doric order. The cloister of this convent is very fine, and superbly executed: it is sixty feet square. There is a portico along the four faces, of sixteen arcades, supported by twenty Doric columns of dark grey and mixed marble; a like number of pilastres of the same marble, with their capitals of white marble, ornaments the interior walls, which are besides tiled to a certain height, ornamented above with nineteen large paintings relative to the foundation of the order of la Merci. The windows in the roof of the vault contain the portraits in fresco of the princes who were the patrons

* They raise and preserve geese in this cloister. A rent is assigned for their support. It is said to be an endowment of considerable antiquity.

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and benefactors of the order; some of these paintings are by Vinols.

Over this portico there is a gallery the whole length of the four fronts; it has on the outside thirty-two arcades on Ionic columns, coupled, and of white-grey marble; it is ornamented all round by a balustrade of grey marble. The floor of it is very ancient, and made of inlaid wood. The area of the cloisters is spacious; its centre is ornamented with a beautiful fountain of white marble, on an octagon plan; it is a great basin, in the middle of which stands a large cistern with eight cocks, surmounted with a round shell, having eight jets d'eaux, and in the middle another jet larger and higher. The appearance of this cloister altogether is striking.

The convent of San Francisco belongs to the Cordeliers; the church is very large, Gothic, and handsome. Several princes and princesses of the royal house of Aragon were buried there. The cloister is ornamented with twenty-five paintings, representing the particulars of the life of St. Francis, all painted by Viladomat.

The convent of the Dominicans, under the title of Saint Catherine, has a church with a nave, but no aisles; it is large, and built of free-stone. The chapel of S. Raymond has a dome, ornamented with paintings in fresco. That of Our Lady of the Rosary is remarkable for the confusion of sculptures, ornaments, and gildings; there is a good picture of the Descent of the Holy Ghost, by Viladomat, and upon the altar a fine statue of the Holy Virgin, in white marble, executed at Rome. In the vestibule, leading to the cloisters, there is a white marble tomb of Thomas Ripoll, general of the order, who died at Rome in 1733. Only one of the two cloisters deserves any attention. It is Gothic, and in the middle planted with orange trees; two of its fronts are ornamented with sepulchral urns, tombs, and marble statues. The walls of it are covered with paintings, intended to preserve the memory of the people who have been condemned by the Inquisition. They represent piles, dishevelled heads, bodies in the midst of the flames, devils carrying off bodies,

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and inscriptions containing the name, country, age, profession, and nature of punishment of each person, with the dates of their sentence and execution. The first is in the year 1488, and the last in 1728. A very long inscription, placed over one of the doors of the cloister, informs us that the monuments of the punishment of the condemned were formerly deposited in the same place; but that having been almost destroyed by the injuries of time and the ravages of war, especially during the siege of Barcelona, in 1713, the Inquisition had supplied their place by this picture which they had put up in 1745. This inscription likewise tells us, that during the same siege, three hundred and sixty-five bombs had fallen into this convent.

The parish church of St. Mary of the Sea was built in the middle of the fifteenth century; it is the handsomest in Barcelona, from its regularity. It has a nave and two aisles, separated by lofty arcades, delicately formed. In these there are five pictures of the Passion, by Viladomat. The chief altar is a prodigious assemblage of white, black, and mixed marble; but this richness is injured by carvings on wood of a bad taste.

The Hotel-de-Ville is in a very narrow street behind St. James's church; its front on that side has no ornament; in the interior there are Gothic columns, with a great variety of sculptures done with much taste. The front, towards the garden, has considerable beauty.

The Hotel of the Deputation was the place where the states of Catalonia assembled, and is now used for the sittings of the royal audience: it stands opposite to St. James's church, and is accounted one of the handsomest buildings in Barcelona. It does, in fact, bring to mind the beautiful palaces of Italy, allowing for a few defects. In this hotel are deposited the valuable charters and archives of the crown of Aragon, as likewise the treaties of peace, and the concessions granted to towns, corporations, and communities. These archives are kept in very good order.

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The palace of the counts of Barcelona and kings of Aragon is separated from the cathedral only by a little street: its principal front looked on a square, which retains the name of *Plaza del Rey*. At present, one part of this antique palace is occupied by the nuns of Saint Claire; another part serves for the Academy of Medicine, and another for the Inquisition and its prisons. All that it is now remarkable for are its walls, the size of its rooms, and its noble simplicity.

The General's Palace, in the square of the same name, was built in 1444, at the expence of the town, as a market for cloths. The municipality turned it into an arsenal in 1514, and kept the arms of the commons there. It was confiscated by Philip IV. in 1652, when he reduced the Catalans, who had held out against him for twelve years: he there made it the residence of the viceroys of Catalonia. It is a large, regular, square building, with battlements on the top, and covered on the outside with bad paintings in fresco.

The Custom-House is a modern edifice, built according to the designs and under the direction of Roncali, and finished in 1792. It stands close to the Sea-gate, opposite one of the side fronts of the General's Palace: it is a square insulated building: the front has two tiers of pilasters and columns; the lower of the Tuscan and the upper of the Doric order. It has three porticos, faced with coupled columns of the Tuscan order, and a terrace runs round its four fronts. The pilasters, columns, and ornaments are in stucco, or cased with stucco, to which the colours of different marble have been given, by which the neatness of the façade is injured. So early as in 1798 the stucco began to chip, in consequence of the contact with the sea air. The windows have iron balconies, painted red. The whole of this building betrays the extreme of bad taste.

The Exchange is likewise in the square of the General's Palace. It would certainly be the finest building in the town, if a part of it, by projecting much too forward, did not injure its principal front: be that as it may, the taste of its decora-

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tions corresponds with the nobleness and beauty of the structure, and the whole is majestic. It was built by a duty laid on the commerce of Barcelona. It is a long rectangular building of two hundred and thirty feet, by seventy-seven. The body is insulated. Its principal front, towards the square, has three entrances by large porticos, and is ornamented with the Doric columns, over which is a terrace with balustrades, and beneath there is a handsome vaulted vestibule. The upper story rises from the terrace, and is ornamented with four Ionic pilasters on the sides, and in the middle with six columns, between which there are three large windows. An attic, decorated with sculptures finishes this front, which is all of free-stone. The inside is distributed into a multiplicity of rooms; one of which is appropriated to a school for navigation, and several others for drawing.

The Playhouse is on the promenade of *la Rambla*. Its front has a kind of vestibule, entered by three arcades, which are supported by four Ionic columns: above which there are four of the Corinthian order; but the façade is small, crowded, and poor. The interior is handsome, spacious, well laid out, full of out-lets, and adorned with three rows of boxes of an elegant simplicity. The theatre is large; the front of the stage done with taste, and the decorations are numerous and well executed. In the inside it is the handsomest playhouse in Spain.

The School for Surgery. The amphitheatre for anatomy is large, and tolerably well planned, but perhaps not lofty enough: there is too much bronze and gilding about it. There is a gallery round it. It contains a marble bust of Pedro Virgili, a Catalonian surgeon, who, in the course of the 18th century, was the restorer of surgery in Spain, and the promoter of its schools. The bust, which is finely executed, was put up on the 6th of October, 1778, by the professors, as a testimony of gratitude.

Atarazana. This is a name given to a large space which was formerly a part of the coast, but now crowded with build-

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ings erected upon it: a considerable portion of it however remains open. It is situated between the sea-wall and the promenade of *la Rambla*, with which it forms the communication. An immense range of barracks has been lately erected here, and several buildings for casting, polishing, and boring cannon, besides which there is an arsenal here for all kinds of arms. There is another building opposite the barracks, which is also used for the fabrication of arms: it has only a ground story, with twelve windows in front separated by Doric pilasters; it has a large portal in the middle between four pilasters of the same order, surmounted with a pediment, at the top of which are the arms of Spain.

Promenades of Barcelona. Barcelona has a great many handsome walks, both in and out of the town. Those without are on the sides of the fosses; they are shaded by large trees, and they would be agreeable were it not for the inconvenience of the dust. The walks within run round the town. Setting out from the sea-gate, we ascend the sea-wall,* and go the whole extent of it, then descend on the Rambla to the Atarazanas; on this walk we proceed about 300 paces, then turn to the left through the street which leads to the land-wall, we go round this to the Esplanade and the wall lately made there, in which we continue till we come to a very short street which leads us again to the sea-gate, whence we set out. It takes about one hour and a half to make the tour of this agreeable walk.

The sea-wall extends in a right line from the sea-gate to the foot of Mont-Jouy, about 380 fathoms in length and 46 feet in breadth. It forms a superb terrace along the harbour and seaside. On the right it has a line of houses well built, and covered with an agreeable variety of paintings in fresco; on the left is the harbour and an immense extent of sea, on

* I always make use of the word *wall*, from its being consecrated in the country: it means however nothing more than the rampart.

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which a multitude of sails and ships of different nations are seen at a distance. There are a number of stone seats in this beautiful walk: it wants nothing but trees; of these, however, the defence of the place and the vaults over which a great part of it is built will not allow. The count de Riela, who was captain-general of Catalonia about the middle of the 18th century, being desirous of rendering this promenade more frequented, had coffee-houses and other attractions established on it: after his time they were put down.

The land-wall begins nearly where the sea-wall finishes, and terminates towards the Esplanade, thus forming a lengthened semi-circle embracing three quarters of the town. This wall stands high; on one side it looks down on the town, and on the other it looks over the country: there we see a number of pleasant houses and manufactories, and here rich and fertile fields clothed in verdure.

The Esplanade is a large open piece of ground extending from the new gate to the citadel, below and on the side of the extremity of the land-wall: it was turfed and planted with trees, but it was not frequented. In 1797 a handsome walk was begun to be made, which was finished in 1801 under the care and direction of Don Augustin de Lancaster, the captain-general of Catalonia. It is 444 yards in length and is divided into three alleys, the middle one of which is broadest; a green rail nearly breast-high runs round it, with openings here and there for walkers; but all the openings have turnstiles in them. In the alleys there are circular places surrounded with white marble seats in form of canopies, with iron backs painted green. In each of these places there is a basin with a balustrade round it, and in the midle a jet-d'eau which rises to the height of from 25 to 30 feet. The alleys at their extremities terminate in a semi-circular space, in the middle of which is a *chateau d'eau*, or reservoir, in the shape of a triumphal arch, built in grotto work. There is a new alley, on the outside, 18 feet wide, intended for car-

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riages. This promenade is only frequented at the fine time of the year.

The Rambla, the ancient interior walk of the town, in a gully, whence it took its name, went round the old limits of Barcelona. It joined the two walls, sea and land, forming a communication between them, and extended from the descent of the sea-wall to the Atarazanas, and to the barracks called *los estudios*. This promenade was 904 yards in length, and had trees from the convent of Santa Monica to the streets of the Carme and the Puerto Ferissa, where it terminated in an open place where the soldiers of the garrison were exercised. The ground of the walk, which was distributed into several alleys, was muddy in winter, and very dusty in summer; the trees upon it were small, and not sufficiently bushy, as they could not thrive in so bad a soil. The necessity of opening a way for the carts and wains of the adjacent quarters gave the idea of changing the form and use of this walk, and dividing it into several parts: the great opening at the descent from the sea-wall to the Atarazanas has been suffered to remain, to the extent of 116 yards in length and 22 in breadth: on one side of it a terrace is raised two feet high, paved with brick, having on each side walled causeways, serving it as parapets; it is 27 feet wide and falls into another square 144 feet by 126, without trees, where the playhouse is. There a similar terrace has been made 214 yards in length, which in like manner leads to another square of 156 feet by 133, into which the streets of the hospital and the Boqueria open. The two terraces are planted on both sides of the exterior with large poplars close to one another, but with openings here and there for passages. At the extremity of the latter square a promenade of a different kind begins: it is 174 yards in length and 30 feet in breadth, composed of a single alley, not raised, but having a wooden rail on each side painted green, with turnstiles for walkers; it leads to a large square tolerably handsome, but without trees: it has been left in its old state.

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This walk as well as that of the Esplanade was made at a time when the people were deprived of work and stood in the greatest want of assistance; these two extensive undertakings served to employ and to support them. Nor must the beneficent establishment which furnished the means, pass unnoticed here. In 1798, during the war between England and Spain, commerce became languid, a great number of manufactories were shut up, and others confined to fewer hands; many mechanics also failed, and a multitude of men and women were reduced to extreme want. The inhabitants were every day assailed by the poor of all classes, and this beggary, almost general, raised great apprehensions for the safety of the streets and houses. At that juncture the captain-general of Catalonia, Don Augustin, afterwards called Duke of Lancaster, and whose name should be immortal in Barcelona, undertook to relieve the general distress. He obtained the king's permission to give public balls, and make lotteries of different kinds. The produce of both was applied in assisting the unfortunate: the direction of which was confined to a company of merchants, who performed this duty with equal zeal and disinterestedness: all who could work were employed for public service, and to those of either sex who could not, a daily distribution was made of food ready dressed. These two modes of relief were continued a long time: the latter went by the name of *Olla publica* or the *Public pot*. The directors themselves attended every day to the distribution to the people, who came up in a line with great order and quiet. To each was given a large bason of thick rice or vermicelli soup, with cabbage, pease, a bit of the lights of beef or mutton, and a slice of pork or mutton. It was not easy to eat this portion at one meal. A certain number of similar portions were likewise sent to the prisons and to the asylum. From the commencement of this charity in March 1799 to 1801, 3,833,746 portions were distributed, making about 3560 portions daily. The weekly consumption was usually as follows:

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Vermicelli, which was always furnished gratis by the makers of it ..... ½ cwt.
Rice ..... from 30 to 32 do.
Pease ..... 32 to 35 do.
Cabbages, exclusive of those sent in charity ..... 60 to 80 doz.
Beef and Mutton Lights .....1200 cwt.
Pork ..... 18 do.
Mutton ..... 18 do.
Salt ..... 4 do.
Wood ..... 112 do.

This philanthropic establishment was long kept up, and is not yet entirely extinct. At the same time, the societies of mechanics joined to give assistance likewise to such of their own business as had fallen into indigence. The goldsmiths for near three years fed a great number of unfortunate people, and the quantity of rations furnished by them alone amounted to upwards of 36,000.

Commerce. Barcelona is the centre of the commerce of all Catalonia: in this city reside the principal merchants of the country, and hither flock the foreign merchants; here are made the great speculations which extend to and include the trade of the other ports of the province; and here too is received a great part of the immense coinage which Spanish America sends every year into Spain.

The productions of the earth of a great part of Catalonia form a no less interesting branch of the commerce of this town: the harbour is always full of ships; a thousand are computed to enter every year, of all bulks and of every nation. Nearly a like number of Spanish clear for Holland, France, England, Italy, the North of Europe, and America. Barcelona exports silver, gold, and plain stuffs; silk stockings, middling cloths, printed callicoes, striped and flowered cottons, cottons of every kind, stained and plain papers, firearms, laces, shoes, wines, and brandies. It imports silks

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from Lyon and Nismes, silk stockings from Nismes and Ganges, cloths from Elbeuf and Sedan, jewellery from Paris, iron ware from Forez, millinery from France, cotton goods and stock-fish from England. The amount of the trade outward and inward is computed at upwards of 1,750,000 l. sterling.

The cotton cloths and stuffs alone manufactured at Barcelona, exclusive of a great quantity of printed callicoes, yield an annual produce of 442,510 l. 8s. 4d. sterling. About one-twelfth is consumed in the province; two-twelfths go to the other provinces of Spain: two-thirds of it are sent to the Spanish colonies. The exports from the province, therefore, amount to about 36 millions of reals, or 375,000 l. sterling.

The trade in shoes is considerable; 700,000 pair are annually exported, the trade-price of which was two shillings and a penny the pair. Since the war the price is increased. The Catalonians carry their industry so far as to turn the very filth and sweepings of their houses to profit, which they collect and sell to manure the lands. It is said that the quantity yearly sent out of Barcelona brings in a sum of 6875 l. sterling. From the great trade of this town several courts have been established for its protection, and foreign nations send consuls to reside here.

The arts are cultivated at Barcelona, but chiefly those connected with manufactures. At the expence of the commercial interest of this town two public free schools have been established, from which great advantages are already derived. One is a school for navigation, and the other a school for drawing, where every one that desires it is admitted: there are a great many masters in the different branches. This establishment has been very successful under the direction of Don Pedro Molés, and has turned out some very good pupils.

Barcelona has produced few painters, sculptors, or architects; it owes its celebrity and prosperity to its manufactures, and the flourishing industry of the merchants. There is a kind of painting, however, in which the Barcelonians succeed very well, that in fresco, with which the houses are covered.

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Manufactures. The manufactures of Barcelona were very considerable. So early as the 13th century the inhabitants manufactured a quantity of woollens, silks, linens, hempen cloths, and cottons, which supported themselves till the end of the 16th century. They revived in the middle of the 18th, and are at present in a very flourishing state, and are more numerous and various than ever. They consist principally of printed callicoes, silks, silk stockings, ribbons, and silk galloon. There are 214 manufactories of printed cottons, 524 looms of silk stuffs, and 2700 of ribbons and silk galloon.

The printed callicoes are in general rather coarse, but there are some tolerably handsome: the designs have been much improved lately, and more taste has been displayed in them, but the colours rarely stand.

The silk works consist of taffetas, twilled and common silks, satins, velvets of every kind and colour; these are mixed with gold and silver: gold cloths and brocades are also made there. The manufactures are not carried on by manufacturing companies, but dispersed among the workmen themselves, by which perhaps the qualities may in some degree be injured. It is remarked that the stuffs would be better if they were closer, for their texture is commonly loose: they are also different in the gloss, which is seldom fine, and is never equal to that in the manufactures of France. Another fault in all these stuffs is the silk being badly prepared, which leaves it almost always shaggy: the cause of this is the silk being spun or twisted in an uneven manner. The same unpleasant effect is observed in the silk stockings; they cannot be fine, their stitches being uneven, and often large and shaggy: they do not last long, and are as dear as the French stockings after the duty on their entrance into Spain has been paid.

At Barcelona, laces, blonds, net-work and tapes, employ about twelve thousand persons; galloons, laces, and gold and silver fringes are likewise made here; but these are

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of no great importance. Silk, gold, and silver embroideries are very common, and the embroiderers are so numerous, that they are to be found in every street.

Among the manufactures of all sorts of woollen, there are some of blankets, which are neither fine nor handsome, but of a good quality. For several years past some manufactories of hats have been established, and two manufactories of stained paper to ornament chambers; the finest designs of the manufactures of France are imitated in them. A manufactory of cotton stuffs has been set up; it belongs to a Swiss: here they make flannels, swansdown, dimities, cloths, and blankets; and stuffs of cotton and silk mixed, plain, striped, and of several colours, for clothes. This undertaking has been remarkably successful: the stuffs are good and pleasant, and of a moderate price. Several manufactures of cotton have been set up in imitation of it. Formerly printed callicoes were stamped on cotton which came from abroad; which considerably raised the price of them; but a new species of industry has been introduced, which is become very advantageous, this is called cotton-spinning, which since 1790 has made so rapid a progress, that there are already a hundred workshops engaged in this branch; considerable advantages result from it, such as that of making muslins, nankins, and velvets. For cottons they reckon about 4000 looms, which employ 10,700 persons. The following table will serve to show the importance and value of this branch of national industry.

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MANUFACTURES.	QUANTITY.			PRICES BY VARRAS.		TOTAL.	
	Number of Pieces.	In Varras of Castille.	In French Ells.	Reals in Vellon	Sterling Money.	Reals Vellon.	Sterling Money.
					s. d.		
Common cloths for printed Callicoes	120000	2640000	1512044	7	1 5½	18480000	192,500
Printed handkerchiefs	20000	440000	268748	6	1 3	2640000	27,500
Middling cloths chiefly for printed callicoes	40000	880000	537496	9	2 1	7920000	82,500
Fine cloths for printed callicoes and handkerchiefs	15000	300000	183234	12	2 6	3600000	37 500
Nankins, velvets and striped cloths	13000	208000	127000	20	4 2	4160000	43,333
White cloth for clothes	9000	198000	121000	15	3 1½	2970000	30,729
Muslins of a middling quality	2400	52800	30000	20	4 2	1056000	11 000
Fine muslins	1300	28600	17349	25	5 2½	1715000	17,864
TOTAL	120700	4747400	2896871			42481000	242,510

Shoe-making constitutes a new branch of industry at Barcelona. There is a great number of shoe-makers; they work incessantly to furnish a great part of Spain, India, and Spanish America: the whole amount of shoes exported are 700,000 pairs a year.

Lastly, two new manufactories have been established, one for gauzes like blond lace, and the other for glass: this furnishes square glasses of all sizes, even of three feet four inches long, by three feet wide. The Barcelonians have not much invention in their manufactures, but they easily imitate the works of other people.

Character and Manners. The character of the inhabitants of this town is the same as that of all Catalonia, of which we shall hereafter speak; however, it is more softened by the commercial connections which are produced by the strangers that frequent it, yet it retains a kind of asperity natural to the Catalonians. The people are not mischievous; they cry out, threaten much, and rarely strike. On all remarkable occasions, an immense crowd assemble day or night, whether for processions or public feasts; but disputes very seldom happen. In spite of the roughness in the character of the Catalonians, in spite of the concourse of strangers, the streets of Barcelona are safe in the night-time; they are guarded by patroles in every quarter. The Serenos, who are the same as watchmen in Germany and England, contribute to the public safety. They are armed with swords and pikes, and carry a lanthorn; they call out the hour and the state of the weather. We shall speak more of them in the description of Valencia, where this establishment began. In spite of the opulence of Barcelona, the wealth is divided in such a manner as to render it less apparent, and the taste for economy, natural to the Catalonians, keeps it shut up, and as it were in a manner unknown. The people live easily here, but not at their ease; and they become very poor when Spain has to sustain a maritime war: on the contrary, they grow rich

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when there is a war with France, by the immense sums that the armies spend and leave in the country.

The merchants and tradesmen may be divided into two classes, the one very opulent, and the other barely at their ease. The nobility, some families excepted, were not very rich; but for twenty years past their incomes have increased prodigiously: the produce of the funds have almost trebled; since the last war rapid fortunes have been made, and the nobility have participated in this increase of wealth.

The ladies of every condition, from the nobility to the higher trades-people, wear the Spanish dress only when they go to church or walk in the town; but at home, in company, at balls, and plays, they dress themselves according to the French fashion, which they follow very minutely; and most of their apparel comes from France. The neatness of the foot is an important object in the dress of the women: silk stockings are very common in every class; and their shoes are embroidered with silk, gold, silver, pearls, and spangles.

No great round hats, no cropped heads without powder, are to be seen in the town, among the Catalonians, as in almost all the rest of Spain. The mechanic is always well dressed; even the common workmen are frequently frizzed and powdered in their own shop. The nobility distinguish themselves on great days by a richness in their clothes; they are made of superb embroideries, velvets mixed with gold and silver, and tissues entirely of gold or silver.

Amusements and Society. At Barcelona every thing breathes the taste for luxury and pleasure: the inhabitants are passionately fond of plays, and every class delights in dancing. There were formerly public dances during the Carnival in the play-house, called *Piecettes*, from the name of the coin which is paid for entrance; these balls were prohibited about the year 1778, and the suppression of them has never ceased to be a cause of the greatest regret. But, as has been said, the king in 1798 permitted the renewal

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of public balls. The passion for dancing then revived with all its ardour; the inhabitants crowded to these balls; the trades-people shewed such eagerness, that some were seen there whose earnings were not enough for the subsistence of their families. Many women have been even known to sell their furniture to defray the expences of this amusement.

There were likewise brilliant masquerades during the Carnival. High and low, rich and poor, disguised themselves under various forms: they assumed the dress of every nation; dresses in character increased every year; there was a display of studied taste, and frequently of magnificence. The Rambla was the principal rendezvous of the masks, the windows were filled with ladies, well dressed; the whole was a beautiful sight. The Barcelonians have been deprived of this enjoyment by the government. They still speak with enthusiasm of that happy time; the remembrance and regret of which appear to be indelible.

The inhabitants seldom associate, and their meetings are rarely gay. The nobility formerly met every night, sometimes at one house, sometimes at another; their parties were always very numerous, at times amounting to two hundred persons. For some years past they have become very uncommon, and the nobility live alone.

There is a play every night; the representation is alternately a Spanish comedy and an Italian opera: there are even times, such as the Carnival, when two representations are given in the course of the day; first at four o'clock in the afternoon, and then at eight or nine in the evening. The Barcelonians are very fond of this kind of amusement; and indeed it is not very expensive, though the entrance money has been raised since the year 1800.

The Barcelonians like the country, and spend as much of the summer there as they can. There is, perhaps, no town in Spain, or perhaps throughout Europe, which has so many country-houses, of all sizes, in its neighbourhood. We shall hereafter speak more at large of the environs of Barcelona.

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Festivals and Ceremonies of the Church. The festivals of the church at Barcelona are brilliant, and always accompanied with grand illuminations. Those in the holy week are the most remarkable: some chapels are decorated in every church for grand *reposoirs* or oratories; they are made in the form of a separate temple; some are elegant, others majestic: on Holy Thursday and Good Friday they are lighted up with white wax tapers, which burn for four-and-twenty hours. In the parish churches this illumination is continued in a line round the nave. The cathedral is far superior in this respect to all the other edifices: a large oratory occupies the whole bottom; it is full of wax tapers, and the illumination is continued in two rows round the great nave and the choir; there are about three hundred wax tapers burning. There is no town, after that of Valencia, where there are so many processions, and where they are so much liked as in Barcelona. However, none of those superstitious mummeries are capable of distracting the attention from the principal object which ought to fix it. There are three processions in the holy week; one on Palm Sunday, the other on Holy Thursday, and the third on Good-Friday. They were formerly made up of flagellants, penitents tied in a cross to iron bars, giants in armour, and other personages still more ridiculous; but within twenty or five-and-twenty years they have been suppressed, and the processions, in consequence, have become more respectable. They go out of church at dusk, and return three or four hours after; they are formed of individuals of every class; some are in black, and others covered with a sack of long-tailed penitents; it is made of a black and shining cloth, open before above the waist, and kept up by a thick white cord, to which a chaplet is suspended: some wear on their heads a sort of cowl, which ends in a point reversed behind, and falls before as low as the breast, entirely covering the face, and leaving only two openings for the eyes; others have a different sort of cowl, the points of which are about twenty-four inches above the head; many have their heads

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uncovered, and their hair frizzed and powdered flowing upon their shoulders. The noblemen are distinguished by a great dagger which they carry at their waist; they are followed by several servants in livery. Most of them wear white gloves, and carry white wax flambeaux; they walk two by two with a great deal of gravity, and at a great distance from one another, so as to leave a space for the trailing of their sack-tails, which are about five feet long. There are about six thousand of these penitents. Among them there are some who walk alone between the ranks, and at the distance of twenty paces from each other: the latter go barefoot and have their cowls reversed; an iron chain is fastened to their waist, and dragging after them on the pavement: some carry on their left shoulder heavy crosses, and others hold in their hands the different instruments of the passion of our Saviour. Then come a company of soldiers, clad and armed like Romans, commanded by a centurion decorated with a purple mantle, and carrying another mantle of the same colour, having these letters, S. P. Q. R.

About thirty litters, which differ every procession, are distributed at a distance; each is carried by twelve men, concealed by the drapery which ornaments these litters, in such a manner, that these machines appear to go on of themselves; on them are placed the representations and principal events of the life and passion of Our Saviour. Most of the figures are of wood, or pasteboard, but poorly executed. As to the dresses, they are appropriate to the personages; these litters are very magnificently ornamented; they are covered with a drapery, which falls all round to the earth; it is of black velvet enriched with galoons, fringes, embroideries, and gold tassels, of the greatest richness; and they are decorated with artificial flowers, and bands of embroidery with spangles and pearls. France had formerly its brancard, or litter; it was attended in the procession by the French settled at Barcelona, with the consul and vice-con-

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sul, all carrying a wax candle in their hands; which has not been repeated since the year 1792. This retinue takes upwards of two hours in passing.

The consumption of wax during the holy week is inconceivable; and in the three processions there are burnt nearly thirty thousand flambeaux of white wax, weighing from five to six pounds each. It is consequently a great branch of industry and trade, though the greater part of this wax comes from Africa.

There are two more processions, one on the 13th of June, for the festival of St. Anthony of Padua; the other for the festival of the Holy Sacrament; the latter is very long, well ordered, and striking. All the arts and trades join in it, bearing each a damask standard. The religious communities and a part of the secular clergy of all the parishes, and of the cathedral chapter are in it; most of them in chapes and chasubles, every one holding in his hand a taper of white wax. Thirty-six priests come next, dressed with the richest ornaments, and are followed by twenty-four, in tunics, carrying large white wax flambeaux. Young children dressed like angels, like St. John the Baptist, and like cardinals, carry incense and censers, and strew the streets with flowers. Bands of music are distributed at certain distances. A detachment of grenadiers surrounds the canopy. The magistrates and others follow it. The procession is closed by the grenadier company of the Spanish and Walloon guards; the rest of the troops are stationed by detachments in the streets and squares. The report of the artillery firing on the ramparts mingles with the ringing of bells, the beating of drums, and the flourishing of trumpets.*

During the octave of this festival, processions less numerous go from different churches; whither the inhabitants repair, or send their servants with flambeaux, in consequence of

* This procession was formerly preceded by giants and animals, moved on by men hid in their bodies; but all those were suppressed thirty years ago. The giants again made their appearance in 1798.

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which there is always a very long file of lights. Oratories are erected in different places in the streets where the processions pass, and great pains are taken to decorate them.

It is certain, that the ease which generally reigns in Catalonia, contributes greatly to render these people fond of amusements, ceremonies, and all that tends to recreation and a relief from work; they have several days in the year on which they take occasion to make a noise in the streets, and to enjoy the liberty of which they are so jealous. This principally takes place on Holy Saturday, at the moment that the *Gloria in excelsis* to announce the resurrection is sung in the church: the stroke of the bell which proclaims it is a signal of a dreadful hurly-burly, made by all the workmen in their shops, the porters in the streets, and the towns-people in their houses; nothing is heard but shouting and the firing of guns. Another circumstance not less turbulent takes place on the day of Mid-Lent: boys of ten, twelve, and fourteen years old, in bands of thirty or forty together, run through the streets, some armed with saws in their hands, others carrying logs and faggots, and others again baskets to receive the presents made to them. They run through the streets singing a song, which, in the language of the country, expresses that they are in search of an old woman in the town, to saw her body in two, in honour of Mid-Lent. They stop from time to time, particularly before the shops, roaring their song. They have now found the old woman; and at that moment some of them holding the saw on both sides, put themselves in the attitude of sawing, and mimic the motion. They meet with a different reception in the different places in which they stop: some are amused with their play, and give them money, bread, wine, eggs, and wood, which is supposed to be intended to burn the old woman, after sawing her in two; others are angry at the noise they make, turn them away roughly, and often throw a kettle full of water over them; they thank the former by repeating their songs, and answer the others with hisses and shouting.

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Climate of Barcelona. The climate of Barcelona has been much extolled; and, perhaps, formerly with cause; the inhabitants allow that it is altered of late years. There is a searching moisture in the air, and the east winds are very prevalent. The south-east and south-west winds are likewise much felt, communicating to that moisture a degree of heat which renders it more unwholesome. Those winds are often very violent here. The north winds rarely blow, and those are the most necessary for purifying the atmosphere, condensing the air, and preventing the effects of a moist heat. Rain, it is said, was formerly uncommon; at present it is very frequent at all seasons of the year. The climate is uncertain; the four seasons are frequently experienced here in one day, and the change is wonderfully sudden.

The winters are tolerably mild; in some years Reaumur's thermometer does not fall below the sixth or seventh degree; there are times, however, when it falls to the fourth or fifth, below the freezing point: it is ascertained that formerly it never snowed here; lately, however, it has snowed almost every year; but the snow does not last long. The cold here is rarely of a dry nature; the humidity, almost constantly prevailing in the atmosphere, makes it more penetrating and more disagreeable; there are even some years when the rains are almost incessant. The spring is seldom fine; it is almost a continued succession of wind, rain, heat and cold; it is the worst season of the year. The summers are warm; but the great heats do not last more than from fifteen to twenty days; they are moderated by the east winds, which cool the air to such a degree, as to make a sudden change from heat to cold. The autumn was always the finest season of the year; the sky was serene, and the atmosphere calm; but for some years it has become stormy and rainy.

The air is always moist at Barcelona; which is probably owing to its being near the sea, and to the frequency of the east winds. The shape of the basin in which this town is

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situated may also contribute to it: it is open on the east, north-east, and south-east to the sea; on the north and south-east it has the river Bezos, and to the south the Llobregat; on the north and north-east it is shut up by little mountains. The east wind, which frequently blows, is stopped by these mountains, and beat back into the basin, where it deposits the watry particles with which it is charged; and there also the moisture arising from the river is retained. The humidity is very perceptible in winter and spring; in summer the heat of the day counteracts it; but as soon as the sun sets it becomes very piercing, and leaves a hot and disagreeable sensation on the skin. The state of the atmosphere has a great effect upon the health, and the inhabitants of Barcelona are affected with the moisture of the air; for there is a tendency to scurvy in the town. Inflammatory diseases and catarrhal fevers are common enough, produced by frequent changes in the atmosphere; bilious fevers prevail in summer, and are inflammatory. Diseases, however, are not very common; epidemic disorders are very rare, and the inhabitants are generally healthy enough. It is said that apoplexies are frequent; but, on an exact calculation, not more so here than in other towns of equal population: the Academy of Medicine has endeavoured to investigate the causes of this pretended frequency, but the result has not yet been satisfactory.

Inns. Barcelona has several principal inns, the Golden Fountain, the Arms of France, the Four Nations, and the Fonda*; formerly travellers found good rooms and beds, and were well provided for two *piecettes* or 20d. each meal, or four *piecettes* the day; the prices have been increased since the war to three *piecettes* a meal and five *piecettes* a day. The two first of these inns are greatly fallen off and are at present very indifferent. There are several other inns called Becos,

* Another was set up in 1801, with the name of *Grand Commerce.*

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where you pay only for what you eat, and some of them are not bad.

Provisions are dear at Barcelona, beef is usually sold for six sols six deniers Catalonian money, or eight pence half-penny English for six-and-thirty ounces; veal eight sols, or ten pence three farthings; mutton nine sols nine deniers, or two shillings and two pence half-penny; fish for two and a half or three piecettes, or two shillings one penny; pork dripping for four piecettes and a half, or twenty pence; lard three piecettes, or two shillings and six pence; brown bread five quartos, or about three half-pence the pound of fourteen ounces; coals twenty-pence the hundred weight; green oak or olive wood, two shillings and a half-penny the cwt; bad wood half a crown for a small load; a common fowl fifteen pence; and a fat pullet two shillings, or half-a-crown; turkeys three shillings, or three and six pence each; they have been sold as high as twelve shillings and six-pence; and lambs as high as thirteen, fifteen, and seventeen shillings. The prices have risen since the present war with England, and would be still higher, should there be an augmentation of the troops for the garrison of this town and its neighbourhood.

I shall conclude this account of Barcelona with a sketch of the different sieges it has sustained, almost all of which have been signalized by acts of intrepidity and of heroism.

When it was in the possession of the Moors, it made an obstinate resistance in 802, against the generals of Louis, king of Aquitania; and held out against them for seventeen months: during the last six weeks it sustained continual assaults; the buildings were destroyed, the walls demolished, and one half of the inhabitants were killed or perished with famine; notwithstanding which it held out: it was however at length taken, and the Moors driven out; it was then peopled by French.

It was besieged in 985 by the Moors, and carried in six days, after a victory obtained by the troops of Almanzor, king of Cordova, over the Catalonians: it was set on fire, and almost all the inhabitants were carried away into slavery; but

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the count Borel retook it some time after, and secured himself in the possession.

Barcelona in the 15th century, was the hot-bed of the Catalonian rebellion against John the second, king of Aragon, its sovereign; it sustained a siege against its king, and compelled him to raise it in 1462; it made a similar resistance against him in 1472; but being besieged by a superior force, it fell on the 17th of October in the same year, after a siege of six months.

Engaging again, in 1640, in a new rebellion, it held out for twelve years against all the efforts of its king, Philip the fourth; but was at last taken in 1652, after a blockade and siege of ten months.

It again resisted Charles the second in 1689; but was subdued by force of arms.

In 1697, it was taken by the French army, under the command of the Duke de Vendome. Its inhabitants were armed; they were supported by a garrison of 12,000 men, and defended by the Prince of Darmstadt; a superior army came to their assistance, under the command of Don Francisco Velasco, which army was beaten, and the town compelled to capitulate fifty days after the trenches were opened.

In 1706 it dared to defy Philip the fifth, its sovereign. This prince besieged it in person; but the approach of an English fleet obliged him to raise the siege.

The king whom this town had chosen had deserted it; the neighbouring provinces had resumed their allegiance to Philip the fifth; the other towns of Catalonia had submitted, and the spirit of the Catalonians was broken, yet Barcelona persisted in its rebellion; it dared to sustain a siege in 1713 and 1714, against the united forces of France and Spain. This siege will never be forgotten: efforts of courage, feats of heroism worthy of the finest ages of Rome, were here displayed. The inhabitants, left to themselves, without troops, without a garrison, dared to brave large and warlike

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armies, commanded by celebrated generals; they feared neither hunger, nor misforture, nor death.

Exploits of the most heroic nature were performed by common tradesmen; the students of the university formed in battalions which were long invincible; priests and monks, with a sword in one hand, and the crucifix in the other, went from rank to rank, animated the soldiers, confirmed their courage, and excited them to slaughter in the name of the God whose image they carried; capuchins were seen with their robes tucked up, their beards tied with ribbons, blessing, loading, presenting, and firing the cannon; women, more inveterate still, prepared what was necessary for the defence of the place, ran on the beach, mixed themselves with the combatants, striking as good blows as the soldiers, amidst whom they fought.

Nothing could reduce them; in their very losses they found new motives of courage and perseverance. Berwick redoubled his efforts, he carried the bastion of Saint-Clair *; which was bathed with the blood of the French nobility; the besieged returned to the charge and again made themselves master of it. Again repulsed, they beheld their ramparts demolished by cannon-balls; but incapable of yielding to terror, they evinced upon the beach the same courage which they had shown behind their walls. Forced at last, yielding to numbers, they retreated in good order into the town where they found a new theatre for their courage: the streets became the fields of battle; there battle after battle was fought. When beaten, they fell back, but only to return to a new charge. Berwick offered them their lives, but still they would not surrender. The night concealed feats of heroism, which antiquity would have celebrated; it concealed exploits which would have done honour to the town that was the theatre of them, had they not been tarnished by the motives which directed them.

* It was in the plain now occupied by the citadel.

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Daylight appeared, and showed the horrors which the night had enveloped in darkness. Blood every where ran in streams; the streets were heaped with dead, and yet the Barcelonians continued to fight. The women, from the tops of the houses threw down upon their assailants showers of stones, beams and burning brands. Berwick again offered them their lives; he was not attended to; they were still determined to fight. He then ordered the houses to be set on fire; the flames ascended into the air, and the Barcelonians yielded, and surrendered;* but they retained their hatred and their pride. They saw their standards burnt by the executioner; they lost their privileges, and were punished for their rebellion; their rage became impotent, but remained not the less in the hearts of the rebels, where it was too deeply engraven.

Thus fell this proud and powerful town, which had so often dared to raise its haughty and menacing head against its princes; which had dared to struggle against the two first monarchs of Europe, and long withstood their power. It fell; but, subject to new laws, and submitting to the tranquil dominion of its lawful masters, it soon recovered a new lustre, and again became a town equally rich and powerful.

EXCURSIONS IN THE ENVIRONS OF BARCELONA.

Citadel. The town is defended by a citadel, situated at the extremity of it to the north-east. It was built by the order of Philip V, after he had reduced the Catalonians to obedience. This citadel occupies a tolerably large extent, on a place which formed a part of the town, and which contained six hundred houses, three convents, and one parish church. There are good ramparts of every kind with moats. It has a staff, composed of a governor, a king's lieutenant, a major

* On the 13th September, 1714.

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and aid-major, and a battalion of infantry, which is its common garrison. This citadel serves neither to awe nor defend the town, being too little elevated to command the interior of it; it only commands the houses near the north gate, and is at the same time commanded by *Mont-Jouy*, which is able to crush it; it is equally too low on the side towards the country, and its distance does not permit it to protect the town except a very small part of it.

The Port of Barcelona is situated below the citadel, between the town and Barcelonetta, and at the east end; it has an anchorage below the sea-wall, which extends as far as *Mont-Jouy*. Both of them were at the beginning of the 16th century an open coast, which however had more water than they have now. The ancient port was on the other side of *Mont-Jouy* and behind this mountain, which separated it from the town. It is formed and sheltered by a mole, which was built in 1477 by *Stacio*, an engineer of Alexandria; but this port was choaked up and the mole destroyed by storms in the 16th century.

The present port is nothing more than a great bason formed by piers, kept up by solid quays, and on the whole of one side by the ramparts of the town. When it was an open shore the depth was considerable, but since it has been enclosed in the form of a bason, the sand which goes into it remains there, and, there being no issue, forms into banks, and is thus filling it up by degrees. The depth is daily insensibly decreasing, in spite of the labour of the men employed to clear it out. Large ships cannot enter, and frigates can only approach at the distance of half a league.

The entrance to this port is difficult, and even sometimes dangerous, being shut in by a bar, which is frequently very high, formed by the junction of the *Bezos* and *Llobregat*; these two rivers fall into the sea, the former behind the citadel and the latter behind *Mont-Jouy*; this course brings them towards one another, and a quantity of sand is thrown into the harbour by their meeting. There was an idea of throw-

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ing their embouchures further off, and giving them another direction; this plan however was abandoned. There was also formed a project for removing the port to the south-east part of the town, that is between Mont-Jouy and the ramparts; it would have been very large and might be continued within the walls. This project was never put into execution. Within a few years, the project of brigadier-general Smith's has been added, which is confined to continuing the pier much farther on, and by that means to procure an inclosure in which the vessels may find thirty-six feet of water.

In spite of the inconveniences we have mentioned, the present harbour is tolerably secure, well sheltered, and much frequented; it is always full of ships of different nations; the total for one of the last years amounted to five hundred for the Spanish, two for the French, one hundred-and-fifty for the English, sixty for the Danes, forty-five for the Dutch, and more than three hundred of different other nations.

Mont Jouy. The mountain called *Mont Jouy* is situated to the south, on the sea-side, to the west of Barcelona; the highest part is occupied by a fortress which takes its name from it. It is large, spacious, and noble; the resources of art have been exhausted in augmenting its strength, to render an attack more difficult, and the defence of it surer.

This fortress has a particular governor, a major, and a garrison formed by a detachment of Spanish guards, or Walloons, taken from the garrison at Barcelona. Mont Jouy commands, in a striking manner, the town, the port, the citadel, the neighbouring country, and the sea to a great extent.

Barcelonetta is a little new town dependent on Barcelona, and which seems to have been one of its faubourgs. It is situated to the south-east of the town, between the sea-gate and the light-house of the Mole, which projects into the sea.

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The place which Barcelonetta occupies was a vast piece of useless ground, where there were some straggling fish-huts. The marquis de la Mina, captain-general of Catalonia, conceived the project of turning this ground to advantage, by making it at once an entrepot and an asylum for seafaring people. About the middle of the 18th century the new town was built according to the plans of Don Pedro Cermeno, and under the direction of Ribas, the architect. Its form is a perfect square, with four-and-twenty regular streets, each being a little more than twenty-five feet broad; fifteen of the streets are direct and parallel, intersected by the nine others at equal distances. The houses are uniform, and built with bricks, having but one story, all of the same height, twenty-five feet and a half in front. There are two squares in it, that of *St. Michael* and that of *Los Voteros*, and two large ranges of barracks. This parish is under the invocation of St. Michael. The front of this church has two large stories of architecture; the one of eight columns coupled, with three large gates; the other of four, also coupled. Above these stories there is a triangular pediment, ornamented with three statues, one of the *holy Virgin*, the other of *St. Michael*, and the third of *St. Gonzalez Telmo*. The church forms a kind of Grecian cross, with pillars of grouped columns in the Gothic style; the delicacy and harmony of which are diminished by their size. The tomb of the marquis de la Mina, who was the founder both of Barcelonetta and of this church, is seen on the right of the chief altar. There is a bust of this general executed in bass-relief, surrounded with military trophies, and ornamented with different devices relative to his family; underneath is a Latin inscription: he died on the 25th of January, 1767.

The view of *Barcelonetta* excites pleasure at first sight; but the too great uniformity of the streets and houses gives it a sameness, and renders it less agreeable. It is inhabited almost entirely by soldiers, sailors, and other seafaring people.

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ENVIRONS OF BARCELONA.

We have already said that Barcelona was surrounded by a beautiful, pleasant, fertile, and well cultivated country; abounding with trees of all species, and productions of all kinds. It forms altogether an oblong, irregular plain, surrounded by gentle hills, and terminates at the sea-side.

The whole surface is covered with country-houses, from the gates of Barcelona to the foot and on the side of the mountains situated to the north-west of the town; they extend farther on to the north towards the river *Bezos*, and to the west on the road leading to the *Llobregat*. They occupy a space of about three leagues; we cannot come on any side into this town without seeing the numerous succession of those houses, called *Torres*, which the astonished traveller takes, at a distance, for considerable settlements.

Several of those houses are handsome, and all are in general agreeable; many are decorated with taste, ornamented with paintings in fresco, and have water in abundance; those at some distance from the coast are most advantageously situated; the eye at once wanders over the country-houses which cover the plain, takes in the town of Barcelona, and views an immense extent of the sea. Almost all these habitations

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have a very essential fault for this country, that is, the want of trees. We see no covered alleys, thickets, and arbours; these objects would ornament them agreeably, and would be very useful in a hot country.

The village of *Saria*, which is at the end of this plain, is situated on the slope of a hill, at the distance of a league from the city, and opposite to it. It is in a delightful situation, and commands all the country-houses that are before it. The prospect is magnificent. This village is remarkable for the abundance and purity of its waters, the beautiful houses which it contains, and the good company who meet there in the fine season.

It has a convent of Capuchins, in which there is a great number of monks: their gardens are large, having fine alleys, and ornamented with arbours, terraces, and amphitheatres; all well kept. They have monuments which display patience and skill; consisting of different representations of subjects of piety, in small earthen figures, of animals, edifices, and trees, executed with much nicety. They are the productions of some of the monks of this house.

The inhabitants of the town retire to this village to forget the ceremonies of a city; all ranks seem to delight in seeking a level; they forget all business, and enjoy the happy calm which characterizes nature under a fine climate.

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Road from Barcelona to the Frontiers of the Kingdom of Aragon, 34 Leagues, 1 Quarter.

Barcelona to	LEAGUES.
Saint-Félice, (a village)	1¾
Venta de Molins de Rey Llobregat, (a river) Pont de Molins de Rey	½
S. André de la Barca, (a village)	1
Martorell, (a small town) La Noya, (a river, with a wooden bridge)	1
Veguda Alta, (a village)	1
Masquefa, (a village)	1
Piera, (a village) La Noya, (a river without a bridge)	2
Valbona, (a village)	½
Fuente del Reyna, (a village)	½
La Pobla, (a village)	1
Vilanova, a (village)	½
Igualada, (a town)	1½
Yorba, (a village)	1
Venta del Gancho	1
Santa Maria, (a village)	½
Por Carises, (a village)	1½
Meson nueva de Monmaneu	½
Hostalets	1
Cerera, (a town)	1
Curulla, (a village)	1
Tarrega, (a town)	1
Vila-Grassa, (a village)	1
Bellpuch, (a town)	1
Gormez, (a village)	¾
Molleruza, (a village)	¾
Vall-Fonga, (a village)	1
Belloch, (a village)	1
The Segro, (a river and bridge) Lerida, (a town)	2

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Alcaraz, (a village) the limits of Catalonia and Aragon..... 2 leagues.

We leave Barcelona by the gate of *San-Antonio*; we cross the country which we have mentioned, leave the sea to the left, and follow a much frequented road, broad, and bordered with trees, through which on each side we see many villages scattered about; on the left are those of *Sans* and *Sanboy*; on the right, *Sarria*, *San-Just Pluves* and *Ginestera*: we then come to the hospitalet and afterwards to Saint-Félice. This is large and well peopled; we pass through the whole length, a fine street, in which there are a great many houses handsomely decorated. To the right at a small distance we leave the village of *Molins de Rey*, and proceed to the *Venta* of the same name; soon after a short avenue, planted with poplars, brings us to the bridge of *Molins de Rey*, over which we cross the Llobregat. This bridge, lately built, is rather heavy; but is of a solid construction, and is ornamented on each side by a foot pavement. We quit it by another avenue like the former, leaving to the left the road which leads to *Tarragona* and *Valencia*, as well as the village of *Pereja*: turning to the right we pass the village *San-André de la Barca*, and in an hour after arrive at *Martorell*. Before we enter this town we see to the right, near the road, a

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bridge over the *Llobregat*; it has three arches, and is very high and narrow, it is called in the country the *Devil's bridge*. Its building is attributed to Annibal; but fragments of Roman ruins found at the bottom of the piles prove it to have been built at a later period.

MARTORELL was the *Telobis* of the Romans; it is a small town, dirty, close and ill-built: it is situated on the *Noya*, at the confluence of that river and the *Llobregat*; it has a parish church, a convent of monks, and some barracks: the inhabitants are laborious; the women make lace and blonds: it has a tolerable inn. Near this town is a triumphal arch of Roman construction. In going from Martorell we cross the *Noya* over a wooden bridge, and a little afterwards we enjoy the interesting view of Mont-Serrat, famous in Catalonia for a celebrated rich monastery of Benedictines. This mountain is formed by an assemblage of immense cones, situated one above another, on a range of rocks, upwards of three thousand feet above the level of the sea. The rocks are absolutely naked, and at a distance present no trace of vegetation; but as we approach them, these wilds assume a smiling aspect. There are groves of evergreens, aromatic plants of all kinds, and charming retreats inhabited by happy men, whom philosophy alone would be sufficient to retain in these abodes, but who find in religion and

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in a regular course of life still greater consolations. I have dwelt too long on this admirable spot in the Picturesque Journey through Spain * to mention it lightly here, and I choose rather to refer the reader to that, or to leave the traveller to the impressions which it cannot fail to make.

This mountain, which we do not loose sight of for four leagues, fixes the attention of the traveller, who arrives at *Piera* without perceiving it, after having passed the villages of *Vegudaalta,* and *Masquefa.*

Piera is a tolerably large village situated on a height. We here observe large iron chains suspended to the gate of a house, which is often met with in Spain, chiefly in the kingdom of Aragon: they indicate that a king lodged in the house on which they are hung. The inn of *Piera* is bad. We go from this town down a steep road, cross the *Noya* at a ford, ascend a rough and difficult hill, and then travel for a long time over dry, barren, and uninhabited mountains of granite. In descending we go through a number of small charming valleys, where the coolness of the streams with which they are watered, the verdure that covers, and the trees that embellish them, delight the senses. We now ascend new mountains,

* A work recently published by the same author.—T.

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over which we pass and enter a plain in which Igualada is situated. We arrive in this town after travelling four hours and a half, and passing the villages of *Valbona*, *Fuente*, *La Reyna*, *La Pobla*, and *Villanova*. We leave to the right that of *Esparraguera*, and some small villages or hamlets to the left. On the way we often follow the banks of the *Noya*, sometimes riding in its bed, and ford it a dozen times; the road is muddy, difficult, dangerous, and sometimes impassable in rainy weather. It is enlivened by paper manufactories or mills, agreeably situated: there are a great number of these in this part of Catalonia, and they furnish an important branch of the commerce of this province.

IGUALADA is a town which contains about 12,000 souls, tolerably large, situated in a plain abounding in corn, and olive trees; it is surrounded by large suburbs embellished with trees, and houses lately built. It has a parish church, three convents of monks, a vicar-general of the bishop of Tortosa, for the exercise of ecclesiastical jurisdiction, and an alcade major for the administration of justice. A great many fire-arms are made here, which are famous. There are also several manufactories of printed callicoes or stained cottons.

In going from *Igualada* the road becomes tolerably fine, but spoiled in some parts by deep ruts. We again pass over parched and uncultivated mountains; we come to *Yorba*, *Venta del*

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Gancho, Santa-Maria, Porcarises, Meson nueva de Monmaneu, and *Hostalets.* Cervera is here seen situated on a height; it expands as we approach; the country becomes more beautiful, and, through openings between the mountains that surround us, we have glimpses of a fine country. When we arrive at the foot of the mountain on which *Cervera* is situated, we enter the town by a long, steep hill, made something easier by many turnings.

Cervera, in Latin *Cervaria,* is a small town on a considerable eminence on the Barcelona side, and which, on the opposite side, is on a level with and at the entrance of a large, noble, and rich plain. This town is surrounded with walls, in which there are seven gates. Some of the streets are tolerably well paved. It has a parish church, with a nave and two aisles, which is of Gothic construction; five convents of monks, one commander, of the order of St. Antonio, which became extinct in Spain in 1791; a hospital for the sick, an asylum of Mercy, five colleges, one university, a governor, and about five thousand inhabitants. The convents of the Minimes and of the Capuchins are in a most delightful situation: the former, placed on the brow of the hill, overlooks all the country on the side of the Barcelona road; the latter is situated out of the town on the opposite side, and is in the middle of a rich and fertile country, surrounded with trees, gardens, and rivulets.

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This town has been twice besieged, once in 1652, by count Mortemar, in the name of the king, when, with the rest of Catalonia, it revolted; and the second time, at the commencement of the 18th century, during the war for the succession of Spain, by the combined armies of the Catalonians and Germans, this town supporting the cause of the new sovereign. At the time of the first siege it was taken, but defended itself against the last with courage and success.

Public Instruction and University. Cervera was the native place of *Jérôme Loreta*, a theologian of the 16th century, some of whose writings on theology are extant, printed in 1570. This was almost the only town of Catalonia which preserved the allegiance they had sworn to Philip V. This prince, to recompense them, founded an university there in 1718, which he formed by the union of all those of this province which he suppressed. The Latin grammar and the sciences are taught there. There are forty-three professors, viz.

For the Latin Grammar and Philological Studies	5
For the Mathematics	1
For Philosophy	5
For Medicine	7
For the Canon Law	9
For the Civil Law	9
For Theology	7
	43

There are about eight hundred scholars. Some of the professors, who are secular ecclesiastics, obtain after a certain time of teaching cathedral canonries; one from each of the

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eight cathedrals of Catalonia has been added to them: they succeed according to seniority.

A particular education is also given, in the *Hospice de la Misericorde*, to young girls; this school is under the direction of a mistress and an ecclesiastic.

There are five colleges united to the University: those of *Assumption*, *Conception*, the *Secular College*, and that of the monks of *Citeaux*, have been transferred to it; the three first of *Lerida*, and the last of *Poblet*. The fifth, that of *Ochenta*, or the *Eighty*, is newly created; it is so called from the number of the scholars it maintains, taken in an equal number from the different dioceses of Catalonia: this is now in the ancient house of the Jesuits, and ought to be placed in the University itself.

The Seminary may be regarded as another college of the University: it maintains about a hundred students. Notwithstanding of all these establishments the University does not answer the idea we might conceive of it. It still wants many establishments necessary for the formation of good pupils in some of the branches it professes to teach. It has no anatomical amphitheatre, no botanical garden, no laboratory for chemistry and pharmacy, no philosophical apparatus, nor any course of clynical medicine. In consequence of which, neither anatomy, nor the operations of surgery, nor botany, pharmacy, chemistry, nor the materia medica, &c. &c. are properly taught. The professors in medicine follow *Galen*'s system; making a mixture of it with that of *Boerhaave*, the one spoiling the other. Those of philosophy follow in great part the peripatetic, blended with the precepts of Jaquier; the result is that the whole is unintelligible. Those of theology adhere to the scholastic morality, and do not extend so far as the dogmatic. The building of the University is magnificent, and its architecture very fine; its depth is almost as great as its length. Its front, which is three hundred and nineteen feet, is tolerably well decorated; there are in the interior two large courts surrounded with arcades, in which the students meet

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preparatory to attending their classes; there are here more than eighty columns.

The country of Cervera is extremely fertile, and very well cultivated; it produces wine, oil, corn, and pulse in abundance; the fields are beautiful and cheerful, particularly near the plain of *Urgel*; but the town has a very gloomy aspect; the scholars and fellows of the University form by far the greater part of its population; and it appears deserted in the times of vacation.

In going from Cervera, we cross the large plain of *Urgel*, fertile in wheat, vines, and olive trees; the eye wanders a great way over verdant carpets, and catches some vistas, which form an agreeable whole. We soon arrive at the village of *Curalla*, and in an hour after at *Tarrega*.

This town is situated on an agreeable plain, and in a country which produces oil, wine, corn, pulse, and hemp. It has a parish church, three convents of monks, an ancient commandery of St. Antonio, now suppressed, an hospital which was at the charge of this commandery, a board of economy, and an alcade major for the administration of justice. Two ranges of barracks, out of the town, are formed out of two small symmetrical pavilions. There are not more than about two thousand inhabitants in this town; they carry on a considerable commerce in corn, wine, and oil; there are two

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markets a week, which are much frequented; they particularly abound in corn which is brought from Urgel. This town was the native place of *Gabriel de Tarrega*, a physician of the 16th century, who has left several indifferent writings.

At a league beyond Tarrega, we leave on the sides of the road the two small towns of *Vertu* and *Angle-Solas*. The former to the south of Tarrega, which has about one thousand seven hundred inhabitants, is famous for a fair, very much frequented, particularly for the sale of mules; it is held yearly in the month of April, and lasts eight days; the latter, to the west, has a convent of Trinitarian monks, and a population of one thousand persons. We pass to the village of *Vilagrassa*, containing about five hundred inhabitants; and three hours after arrive at *Bellpuch*, a small town, with a population of about one thousand two hundred persons. It is ill built and badly kept; but is situated in the midst of a country which produces a great quantity of wine, oil, corn, and almonds.

Edifices of Bellpuch. This town has a Franciscan convent, which contains some objects worthy the curiosity of a traveller. It is situated at a small distance to the left, on the slope of a hill; it was founded by the House of Cardona, to which the seigniory of Bellpuch belongs. This convent has two square cloisters, one above the other; at the extremity of the lower cloister there is a spiral staircase which goes up to the belfry. It is built in such a manner that the spindle has an

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opening, forming an eye of about two inches, through which we look from the top to the bottom. It is shewn to the curious as a wonder, though there is nothing extraordinary in it. The upper cloister deserves attention; it is in the Gothic style, supported by small white marble columns in couples, breast high; their capitals are decorated with human figures, animals, flowers, foliage, and other things, forming groups of different kinds. The church, which was built in 1507, at the expence of Raymond de Cordona, viceroy of Sicily, is large and well constructed; the tomb of that nobleman, who died in 1521, is to be seen in it. It is a large marble monument, and one of the finest pieces of sculpture produced on the revival of the arts.

Leaving Bellpuch, we proceed successively to the village of Gomez and that of Mothernza; the houses of which are made of mud, and the inn is very bad; to those of Vallfonga and of Belloch, leaving at a distance on either hand the villages of Sidamon, of Fondarella, of Palma, and of Alamos.

At Belloch the fields begin to look bare; they are without trees, parched and full of little hillocks. In about an hour, we discover the spires of Lerida. This town comes gradually into sight as we approach it, and is soon after seen to its whole extent. The fields about it begin to look handsome, the trees to be more numerous, the cultivation more general and more attended to; and Lerida seems to rise amidst superb gardens. We approach this town through a fine avenue for a quarter of a league, raised like a causeway and planted with poplars.

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We pass through the Segro over a handsome stone bridge, composed of seven arches, and built on the ruins of a Roman bridge. Here we are searched by the custom-house officers, and show our passports, which are sent to the governor, and returned to us at our inn.

LERIDA, in Latin Ilerda, holds a rank equally distinguished in ancient and modern history, for the great events which have taken place in its interior and at the foot of its walls. It was the capital of the country of the Ilergetes long before the first invasion of Spain by the Romans; it had then its own particular princes, the last of whom Mandonius and Indibilis, after having frequently changed sides between the Romans and Carthaginians, were at length the victims of those two nations; Mandonius was given up by his own soldiers to the Romans, and Indibil or Indibilis fell in a battle which he fought with them. It was in the plains of Lerida that Scipio gained a signal victory over Hanno the Carthaginian general, in the year of Rome 537. It was likewise under the walls of this town that Julius Cæsar conquered the Lieutenants of Pompey in the year of Rome 705, and 46 before Christ.

The beauty of its situation and the fertility of the country attracted the attention of the Romans, and as soon as they had made a conquest of it they planted colonies there, and gave

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it the title of *Municipium Ilerdense*. This town having fallen under the dominion of the Goths embraced the Christian religion, and was the seat of a celebrated council held here in the year 528, though according to others in 524*. Suffering again the fate of the rest of Spain it became a prey to the Moors, and was at first subject to the Caliphs of Damascus, and afterwards to the Moorish kings of Cordova, but its own governor erecting the standard of rebellion and usurping the supreme power, it had a separate king. At length, in the year 1149, Raymond Berenger, the last Count of Barcelona, who had just ascended the throne of Aragon, took Lerida from the Moors, and from that time it formed a part of Catalonia. Its inhabitants did not under their new sovereigns degenerate from the virtues of their ancestors: led by James I. king of Aragon, they contributed much to the taking of Valencia in 1238, which procured their town the honour of sending a colony to repeople a part of it, and to establish there its weights and measures. In later times they no less distinguished themselves under Don George Brice, their governor, by the most vigo-

* Several others have been since held here. One mentioned to have taken place about the year 546, is remarkable for two of its canons; one prohibits ecclesiastics from shedding human blood, and the other permits the communion to be administered to magicians when they are dying.

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rous resistance which they twice made against the French armies: thus they compelled the earl of Harcourt to raise the siege of their town in 1646, and the Prince de Condé in 1647. But joining in the rebellion with the rest of Catalonia against Philip V. they were besieged by the duke of Orleans, their town taken by assault, October 12th, 1707, and delivered up to pillage. Such of the inhabitants as then took refuge in the castle surrendered after a month of fruitless resistance.

Situation and Extent.—Lerida is on the declivity of a hill, at the top of which the castle stands on the right and west bank of the river Segra, which bathes the walls of it. The position which it had under the Romans, as described by Lucan is still discerned. The town is long, narrow, almost triangular, close, and ill built. The streets are narrow, crooked, uneven, and paved with pointed stones, unequally driven in; there is but one tolerable street, which would be handsome if it was wider; it is a quarter of a league long. Though very gloomy within, one of the quarters of the town is well situated, that towards the river. There has been lately built a fine quay* which extends the whole length of it, uniting the double advantage of restraining the waters of the Segra, and of furnishing the inhabitants with the means of amusement: it would even be a handsome promenade, if it were planted with trees; it has a view of the river which runs below, of trees on the banks of it, and a vast extent of country richly wooded, beautifully cultivated, and rendered fertile by the waters of the river.

Population.—About 18,000 inhabitants.

* For this the town is indebted to a Frenchman, Louis Blondel Drohuot, then governor of Lerida.

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Clergy. Its bishopric is suffragan to the mother church of Tarragona; its revenue is estimated at 93,000 Catalonian livres, or 10,333*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* sterling. Its diocese includes two hundred and fifty parishes, three collegiate chapters at Monzo, Tamarita, and Alvelda, and two cathedral chapters at Lerida, and Roda in Aragon; the last is composed of regular canons of the order of St. Augustine. Lerida has one cathedral chapter, four parishes, eight convents of monks, three of nuns, one hospital, and one college. There was likewise a commandery of the order of St. Antonio, which was suppressed in 1791.

The clergy of the cathedral includes six dignitaries, twenty-three canons, six prebendaries, eighteen chaplains, thirty-three beneficed priests, four psalm-singers, and one *silenciario**. The canons have a revenue of 3000 piastres, or 468*l.* 15*s.*

Civil and Military Administration. The town has a civil and military governor, a king's lieutenant, a major, a small garrison, and an alcalde major for the administration of justice.

Public Instruction. A university was established here in 1300, by James II. king of Aragon, which was famous in the 14th and 15th centuries, and boasted of having admitted Saint Vincent Ferrier and Pope Calisto III. to their degrees. But at the commencement of the 18th century it was suppressed by Philip V. The town at present has only a college, which is maintained by the bishop: sixty young clerks are supported and instructed gratuitously. Some Franciscan nuns likewise give public and gratuitous instruction to girls.

This town gave birth to the preacher Christobal Galvez, and to the lawyer, Francisco Moli, whose writings on the canon law are extant.

Public Edifices. At the top of the hill there are the remains of a palace which the kings of Aragon had inhabited; there also was the cathedral church which has been removed into the town. That church contained some respectable

* A kind of beadle, to keep silence.

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monuments, which were left for a long time exposed to the injuries of the air, and to the destructive hands of the ignorant; but they were at length, in 1781, removed into the town: these were the tomb of Alphonso IV. king of Aragon, and Count of Barcelona, who died in 1325, of which there only remains a wooden urn painted black, with an inscription; the tomb of Nicholas Moratell, a man celebrated in the 15th century, for his virtues, and his knowledge of the Hebrew, Greek, and Latin languages, and Theology; the tomb of Luis de Requesens, who died in 1509; a marble statue and two Roman inscriptions.

The cathedral is the only edifice of Lerida that is worth attention; it is but very lately built. We go up to it by a double flight of about twenty steps, which lead to a terrace, on which the gates of the church open. These flights are terminated by two great iron gates, and the terrace is decorated with ornaments of the same metal. The front has six fluted pilasters of the Corinthian order, between which there are three large doors, with iron gates of handsome workmanship; it has two fine square towers terminating in round pavilions where the bells are hung. These pavilions are surmounted with gilt ornaments. The whole front is of free-stone. The church has a body and two aisles ornamented with Corinthian pilasters. It does not stand in a place where it can be seen to advantage; being in a narrow street, and likewise screened by the very lofty edifice of the hospital.

Commerce and Productions. Lerida formerly carried on a trade in salt-fish, which has absolutely failed. Its present commerce is confined to the exportation of some productions of the land, chiefly fruits and pot-herbs; which are sent in great quantities to Urgel and Aragon. The country of Lerida, which runs three leagues from north to south, and two from east to west, is very fertile and valuable for the variety and abundance of its productions; wheat, oats, flax, hemp, oil, wine, beans, haricots, and all kinds of excellent fruits and pot-herbs. The country is intersected with canals supplied by neighbouring rivers, and is carefully and skilfully watered.

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Silk-worms are likewise bred in this country, but to no extent.

Inns. The sign of S. Luis, kept by Italians, has very neat apartments, and the living is good: it is altogether equal to a good French inn: one may dine for three piecettes, or half a crown English.

Leaving this town we enter on the mountains, where we continue to travel; the road is not bad but disagreeable, on account of the constant view of naked, parched rocks, and the multitude of hills. Here every thing is dry and wild, and looks as if nature were entirely left to herself; at last the view is perpetually bounded by a succession of hillocks. After travelling two leagues we pass through a poor miserable village, the last in Catalonia, on this side; it is called Alcaraz, and is said to be the Orcia of Ptolemy; it was formerly a fortified town, taken from the Moors in 1149, by Guillémo Raymond de Moncada, and by Armengol, count of Urgel. At the end of this village to the right we see a very old square tower, with battlements and loop-holes, which appear to be the ruins of ancient fortifications.

About half a mile from this village there are two blocks of freestone to show the bounds between Catalonia and Aragon.

The road from the Frontiers of the kingdom of Valencia to Tarragon, and from Tarragon to Barcelona, 34 leagues.

The Cenia, (a river and bridge)----------
San-Carlos, (a small town)---------- 1¾ leagues.

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	LEAGUES.
Emposta, (a town) The Ebro, (a river and ferry boat)	1½
Perillos, (a village)	4
Venta del Plata	1½
Venta de Balaguer	3½
The Hospitalet	1
Venta de Rufa	1½
A Ravine	½
Cambrils, (a village)	½
Villa Seca, (a village)	1½
The Francoli, (a river and bridge)	1½
Tarragona (a town)	½
The Gaya, (a river without a bridge) Altafulla, (a small town)	1½
Torre de Bare, a small town)	½
A hamlet	½
La Figareta venta	½
Le Vendrell, (a small town)	1½
Bellvey, (a village)	1½
Gornal, (a village)	½
Arbos, (a small town)	½
A small river { without a bridge with a bridge	½ ½
La Bordeta, (a house)	½
River and bridge Los Monges, (a village)	½
Villa Franca de Panadez, (a town)	½
Venta de Casa roja	½
Venta Nova, or Hostal de Ortal	1½
La Palma, (a hamlet) Venta de Lladoner	1½
Venta del Cipreret Venta del Tiquet	
Le Llobregat, (a river) Bridge of Molins de Rey Venta de Molins de Rey	1½

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	LEAGUES.
San-Feliu, (a village)	½
Barcelona, (a town)	1½

Catalonia, to the south, adjoins the kingdom of Valencia; separated only by the little river Cenia: we pass it, over a bridge of one arch. Entering Catalonia this way, we travel on a fine road from this river to Emposta. The country is sometimes cultivated and sometimes not, but almost always planted with trees. In about three miles we have a view of the sea, travel parallel to it a little distance, and having gone another league, arrive at San-Carlos, a little town, situated on the Mediterranean, opposite the point of the *Alfaques*; a name given to a narrow semi-circular tongue of land, which is only the continuation of the left bank of the Ebro, at the mouth of that River. The town of San-Carlos was built in 1792, at the expence of the crown. We enter it by a large street which leads to the very shore, and which is so broad, that nine or ten carriages can pass a-breast: the houses of the town are uniform, but very low, and the street very short, which forms a singular contrast to its prodigious breadth. There is a church out of the town, erected on a square foundation, the portal of which is composed of four large Ionic columns. This town had at first very few inhabitants;

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scarcely a hundred persons. The air of it is not very wholesome. Here the lands are fallow and full of brambles, but half a league farther on the soil becomes better, is variously cultivated and full of trees: it leads to Emposta, a poor little town on the right bank of the Ebro, and above the mouth of that river: it is the chief place of a bailiwick of the order of Malta; though it appears very poor it might become rich by the execution of the project of establishing the navigation of the Ebro. A little canal has been dug from Emposta to San-Carlos; it is filled and supplied by streams from the adjacent meadows: on this provisions and other necessaries are conveyed to San-Carlos in little boats. The entrance of the Ebro is very difficult, the mouth being obstructed by shifting banks of sand, which increase and diminish in size, and which change their situation after storms and the swelling of the water. These inconveniences may be avoided by entering the Ebro at Emposta by means of the little canal. There is a design of widening and increasing it by means of water to be taken from the river, and of building a harbour at its embouchure into the sea at San-Carlos; by which means an easy and safe communication will be opened between the sea and the Ebro; the canal would then be attended with the further advantage of fertilizing the uncultivated lands of the neigh-

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bourhood of San-Carlos, in establishing fire-engines to raise the water into an aqueduct, whence it might be easily distributed to every part, high and low. The soil, which is good, and which has not been turned up for a long time, would be very productive, and the proprietors would be soon repaid for their advances.

Leaving Emposta, we cross the Ebro in a ferry-boat, which takes a quarter of an hour if the water be low. We proceed to Perillos through an uncultivated country, which is frequently stony, and without trees; full only of shrubs and aromatic plants. After travelling a league we perceive the sea, which we hardly ever lose sight of again for nine leagues. Here the road begins to wind a great deal and to become hilly, and in parts very steep. We come to the top of the mountain, and pass the Col and the Puerto de las Forcas, whence we perceive a valley, which we reach by a short and tolerably easy descent: it forms a kind of bason, surrounded by mountains, rising one over the other; the village of Perillos is situated at the bottom of it, where we arrive after four leagues from Emposta, which require six good hours riding. Leaving the village, we pass through the valley, which is handsome, well cultivated, and full of trees; the road, which has been lately made, is good for about

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three-quarters of a league; after which the mountains we are obliged to go over are at once very fatiguing and tiresome. Sometimes we are raised to a considerable height, where we only see abysses, on which the eye looks down with terror; sometimes we are, as it were, buried in the bottom of narrow, deep gullies, and where we see only a small part of the sky, rocks, and shrubs. La Venta del Plata is the only house we meet with at the beginning of this mountain; but we soon discover another lofty mountain which we must also pass over. Formerly travellers despaired at the sight of it; it was impossible to climb it; it was necessary to scale it. It has been made easier by increasing the windings of the road, and earthing it up. This road is three-quarters of a league long, and it is secured from accidents by parapets; at the top stands the Venta de Balaguer, and the passage is called Le col de Balaguer. The castle bears the same name; it is a small fort, having a governor and a garrison.

The road becomes even; we travel along the foot of the mountains, then on the sea-side, and arrive at the *Hospitalet*. This is an old building, resembling the ancient Gothic castles; it is large, spacious, surrounded with high walls, and flanked with towers; a prince of the royal house of Aragon founded an hospital here for the reception and aid of travellers; the revenues

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which he assigned for this foundation are still received, and the building exists, yet the object is no longer attained. One part of the edifice serves for an inn, another part for a glass-house, and the rest is occupied by a chaplain who enjoys the revenues. Every one at present is accommodated here for his money, but the traveller will only stop from necessity, for the inn is detestable.

The plain into which we afterwards enter becomes wild in about a league; to the right are seen the ruins of an ancient castle, situated by the sea-side; it is spacious within and in tolerable preservation; it is flanked with four square towers; and has one in the centre almost whole. A careful cultivation soon again appears, and increases as we proceed. We meet with a great many vineyards, olive, and carob, and in some parts, mulberry, nut, and almond trees. After passing the *Venta de Rufa*, we go through a very wide gulley formed by the rains, and soon after arrive at *Cambrils*, a village where there are good springs, and the church of which has a square tower with loop-holes, for a belfry. The country becomes handsomer and more diversified as we approach Tarragona. The plain is very woody, with intervals of cultivation: it is pleasant, and terminates with a superb curtain of verdure formed by a chain of mountains, in the centre of which Tarragona begins to

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appear. In about an hour we discover to the right, at no great distance, the tower and harbour of Salona, where a military governor resides; we then come to Villa Seca, a poor little town, a part of the walls and gates of which are still standing: there are some good springs in it: the church has a portal with two columns.

The prospect here is exquisite, displaying almost the whole of the rich and fertile *Campo de Tarragona.* Vineyards, gardens, corn-fields, and fruit-trees of all kinds appear in the greatest abundance. The villages are numerous, and the town of Tarragona, seen at a distance, serves to augment the interest of this agreeable landscape. We even forget that the road becomes again fatiguing and disagreeable; in wet weather it is deep in mud, and when dry, full of ruts difficult to pass: after travelling over it for a quarter of an hour we cross the river Francoli by a bridge of six arches, about a mile from Tarragona, into which we enter by a pretty steep hill through the gate of San Carlos, which is of modern construction.

TARRAGONA, in Latin Tarraco, is one of those famous towns which only recall the remembrance of their former grandeur, and serve as a comparison for the vicissitudes which may fall to the lot of the largest and most populous cities. We shall not stop here to enquire either

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into its origin or foundation, which some authors have carried back above two thousand years before the Christian era. Be that as it may, it must have been a considerable place before the Romans invaded Spain; and under its new masters its limits extended to the shore and harbours of Salona, which at present is a league and a half distant from them. It became, under the dominion of Rome, the capital of the Tarragonese province, or, in other words Citerior Spain. The town of Tarragona was the residence of the Consuls and the Pretors. The Scipios, Octavius Augustus, and Adrian, made some stay here; its antique walls built by Scipio, were repaired by Adrian; it had all the advantages of Rome itself, an amphitheatre, a circus, palaces, temples, and aqueducts. In the time of the Emperor Adrian, its circumference was 34,190 fathoms; its population was adequate to its immense size, if what the historian Antonio Augustin says be accurate; he states it at 600,000 families, which would make upwards of 2,500,000 inhabitants. This historian, who lived in the 16th century, complaining of the decline of this illustrious town, grieves that in his days there were only 80,000 families in it, or about 380,000 inhabitants; but Mariana, who was almost contemporary with him, declares that the population of it was not above 7000 families, and that there were not 2000 houses in it. Its power first declined under the Goths. Euric their king

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took it in 467, and his soldiers, in revenge for its resistance, destroyed it. It was again sacked by the Moors, who besieged it in 714, and put all the inhabitants to the sword. Louis d'Aquitaine drove out the Moors in the year 805, but they recovered it. Raymond Berenger took it from them in 1150, and repeopled it the year following. Having afterwards fallen again under the yoke of the Moors, it was finally rescued from them by *Alfonso el Batallador*, king of Aragon in 1220. Tarragona is at present reduced in its size to about 1400 fathoms in circumference, a population of 9000 souls, very ordinary buildings, and almost to a state of poverty.

Situation. Extent. Tarragona is at present situated on an eminence of rocks elevated about seven hundred and sixty feet above the level of the sea, and near the river Francolí. It is surrounded with walls, and has six gates and two castles of little importance, that of the *King*, and that of the *Patriarch*.

Clergy: Tarragona is the See of one of the most ancient archbishoprics of Spain; it existed under king Wamba; and was reestablished in 1088, by Raymond Berenger, count of Barcelona, after having expelled the Moors from it. Formerly its jurisdiction extended very far; but it has been diminished by the erection of new superior jurisdictions. At present this See has the bishop of Ivica, and the seven bishops of Catalonia, for suffragans. Its diocese contains a cathedral chapter, and seven hundred and forty parishes; the archbishop has the title of prince of Tarragona; he crowned the kings of Aragon. The town has only one parish, which is

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attached to the cathedral; it has monasteries, four nunneries, and one house of Beguines of the order of Saint Dominic.

The cathedral has seven dignitaries, twenty-one canons, twenty-three prebendaries, and forty beneficed clergymen.

The States-general of Catalonia formerly assembled in this town, and fifteen councils have been held here, that of 1228 annulled the marriage of James I. king of Aragon, with an infanta of Castile. That of 1240 threatened the archbishop of Toledo with excommunication if he continued to act as primate of Spain. That in 1424 was the most remarkable; the cardinal de Foix, legate of Martin the Fifth was the president, the object of it was to put an end to the schism which had long divided the church. *Gil sans de Munos*, who had been elected Pope by the cardinals, in obedience of the anti-pope Bennett the 13th, relinquished the popedom, and with his cardinals reentered into the union of the Roman church.

Hospitals. A general hospital for orphans.

Civil and Military Administration. Tarragona is the chief place of a corregidorat, which contains one hundred and ninety settlements; it has a civil and military governor, a king's lieutenant, a major, a garrison of fifty men, an alcalde major for the administration of justice, a minister of the marine, a port captain, and a board of public economy.

Public Instruction. A school for the education of young adies, and a college for boys.

It likewise had a university, which was founded in 1572 by the archbishop *Gaspard de Cervantes*; and which was included with the universities of Catalonia suppressed by Philip the fifth.

Edifices. The cathedral church is at present the only building which can fix attention, nor is it of a style to detain us long. It is a fine spacious edifice built of freestone, one hundred and seventy feet long, and one hundred and twenty-seven wide, and is divided into a body and two aisles: which are

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separated by five arches on each side: they are supported by great pillars of an enormous size, on each of which twelve Corinthian columns are clustered; the architecture of the vault is Gothic. The cross of the church is large and opens well, forming a kind of octagon dome, but heavy and without grace; the principal altar is almost entirely formed by the union of several slabs of very fine white marble in demi-relief, representing divers events of the life and death of St. Tecle; the figures being too numerous produce confusion, but there are some parts in detail very pleasing. The chapels are worth inspection, that of St. Francis for two large pictures of him, that of St. Cecilia for the tomb of *Cervantes Tautillo*, cardinal and archbishop of Tarragona; that of the Conception for its paintings and gildings; that of the Holy Sacrament for the tomb of the famous historian Don Antonio Augustin, who was also archbishop of Tarragona, and legate of the holy See in Spain; that of St. Tecle for its form and decorations all in marble. We go from the church into a great square cloister which has six large arcades on every side, each of which is divided into three smaller arches; the latter are supported by Doric columns of white marble; their capitals are ornamented with bass-reliefs of great delicacy, representing different things, such as foliage, branches of trees, birds, other animals, figures of infants, of men, and other devices.

Promenades. There is nothing pleasant in the town except its situation; in other respects it is very gloomy, without pleasures, society, or public amusements; the streets are narrow, short, crooked, and frequently hilly; the houses are ill built, with the exception of a small number, which look well enough. There are no squares, fountains, wells, or promenades; those in which they walk do not deserve this name, being only a beaten road on one side of it, and a kind of terrace, very short, which looks over the sea; both are without trees, or any other cover. Within fifteen years a large street has been built leading to the gate of San-Carlos: it is very long, broad, straight, and contains some fine buildings.

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Climate. Tarragona has a fine sky, and the climate is temperate, but rather warm than cold. There are frequently violent winds here. Provisions are good, the fruits are delicious, and the wine excellent, but strong. The town had no fountain or well water; the inhabitants were reduced to drink cistern water, which was commonly bad, when the last archbishop built a superb acqueduct, which conveys excellent water to the town. This acqueduct is partly built on the ruins of a similar work erected by the Romans.

We have already spoken of the several sieges which Tarragona formerly sustained: since then, this town, revolting with the rest of Catalonia against Philip IV. was besieged and taken by the troops of its sovereign in 1640. Four years after, it was besieged by the French, who were forced to raise the blockade; at the beginning of the 18th century it followed the Austrian party; gave itself up in 1705 to the Archduke, and opened its gates to the English troops, who, after the peace of *Utrecht*, in 1713, set fire to the town when they left it. This conflagration destroyed a part of the buildings and fortifications. This was the period of the total decline of Tarragona: it is now beginning to recover itself.

The new port, the building of which was begun seven or eight years ago, and which will be one of the finest in the Mediterranean, must necessarily contribute to the prosperity of Tarragona; it will make it an important fortified town, and one of a profitable commerce.

We leave Tarragona by the Barcelona gate,

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and pursue for twenty minutes the side of a steep and rocky mountain. This road was formerly covered with unequal broken marble; we then proceed along the sea-shore, and travel for three-quarters of a league on soft sand; sometimes so near the sea that the waves break at the horses' feet: we then return inland, but to no great distance from the sea-shore. A few years since, this road was entirely new made, and is now complete. We see to the left, at a small distance, the village *Ferrent;* and cross the river *Jaya.* Soon afterwards we arrive at *Alta-Fulla,* a town almost entirely rebuilt, and situated on the sea-side.

In the road which we have passed, we leave to the left a Roman monument, on a spot called *Las Plagas Llargas:* a popular tradition makes it the tomb of the Scipios, but without any probability. Having passed the small town of *Torre en Barra,* surrounded with fields sown with corn or planted with vines, we arrive at the *Venta de la Figareta,* near which there are some houses standing together; in a quarter of an hour after we see on the road a fine triumphal arch of Roman construction, in free-stone, and of the Corinthian order; the country people call it *Portal de Bara.* In an hour and a half afterwards we arrive at *Vendrele,* a small town on an eminence; its ancient walls are still seen; it has two *fauxbourgs;* the one which is the

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largest and lower than the town, is separated from it by a small river which has no bridge; the parish church has a square tower, with two stories of massy architecture, for a steeple, on these are placed three other stories, smaller and more airy, in the form of an octagon.

On the left, at a quarter of a league, we leave *Santa-Oliba*, a large village, in the middle of a fine country; at the same time we see in front, at a little to the left, Mont-Serrat, which we perceive for a long time. We go to the small village of *Belvey*, then to Gornal, formerly a fortified town, placed on a hill; there are still some of its ancient walls remaining. To the left we see the village of *Banerus*, situated on a height, and at length arrive, by a rugged and difficult ascent, at *Arbos*, a small insulated town, also situated on a height, agreeably commanding a fertile country; it has still the ruins of gates, walls and moats. The steeple of the church is in the form of an octagon tower, which terminates in a terrace, and is ornamented with a stone balustrade. We go round this town, and a descent leads into a fine valley, watered by a small river: it is surrounded by curtains of verdure; the fields and vineyards seem mixed and confounded one with the other; it is commanded at one end by the village of *Papiol*, which we see at three hundred paces to the left.

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A wood of pine-trees begins here; it is more than a league long, alternately opening and closing, extending and contracting; it spreads at first over the neighbouring heights, and covers a small plain through which we have to pass; it opens circularly, embracing three other valleys in succession; then, continuing, it opens and shews a Dominican convent to the right, built on the side of a mountain: it afterwards agreeably leads to a small distance from Villa Franca. We go on to *Bordeta*, an assemblage of small uniform houses, built on the same line, opposite the Dominican convent; we then cross a river over a bridge which brings us to the hamlet of *Los Monges*, where there are several inns. An hour and a half afterwards we arrive at *Villa-Franca de Panadez.*

VILLA-FRANCA, an ancient town, which Amilcar Barcas, the Carthaginian general is said to have founded, was the first colony that that nation had in the peninsula: it is pretended that it was, at that time, called *Carthago vetus*; but it is more probable that the site of the town was on an eminence, where the hermitage of Saint Michael, of *Olerdola*, is now to be seen. It was subdued by the Romans, and Moors, and conquered by the counts of Barcelona; one of whom, Raymond Borrel, repeopled it in the year 1000, and granted it many privileges, from which it acquired

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its present name. This town is the chief place of the *Panadez*, and contains 112 villages in its circuit: it has a civil and military governor, an alcalde major, eight regidors, a parish church, three monasteries, one nunnery, an hospital, an hermitage of St. Laurent, and one chapel of *Our Lady of Sorrows;* the altar of which, famous in the country, cost a great deal, but is of bad taste. The town is in a very fine situation, in the middle of a large and rich plain; but within it is gloomy; the streets are narrow, and the houses ill built. It wants squares, elegant buildings, and even promenades, though in a situation where very fine ones may be made; its population is about six thousand persons, whose industry is confined to one manufactory for linens; and ten or twelve distilleries of brandy. There is an excellent inn here, kept in the French style. This town was the birth-place of *Pedro Camana*, who has left several works on judicial astrology; he lived in the 17th century.

We leave *Villa-Franca* by a good road lately made; we cross a valley where united beauties agreeably fix the attention; it is an absolute garden. We proceed to the *Venta de Casaroja*, and see, at three hundred paces to the left, the village of *San-Culgat*. The road, though equally handsome, begins to be muddy here, and continues so for a long way. When we get into

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the mountains we do not leave them again till we approach the *Llobregat*; but the ascents and descents are gentle. We proceed mostly through deep and narrow passes, enclosed by mountains, sometimes naked, and sometimes covered with woods; there are some small cultivated valleys here which are watered some by brooks, and others by small rivers; there are also detached houses, and a considerable number of *ventas*, or inns: that of the *Venta Nova*, or *Hostal de Ortal*, has the preference. Half a leâgue further, that is, three leagues and a half from Villa Franca, the road turns on the side of a very steep mountain; and there is no other way than a passage cut out of the rock, where a communication between the two parts of the mountain is established to provide against dangers; this structure calls to mind the Roman works: it is a succession and a double row of arches, of a considerable height, resembling two bridges raised one above the other. The lower has seven arches; the higher, which is on a level with the road, has thirteen; each arch being twenty-five feet high and thirty-one wide, all in free-stone, and built over enormous masses of the same stone; the whole is above seven hundred feet long. This superb work, almost finished a long time ago, was, nevertheless, abandoned, and travellers were forced to alight from their carriages to walk by a difficult foot-

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path, which leads them above the lower part of this building, the whole length of which they went over by means of small gates formed on the jams of six of the higher arches; and while they found it difficult to cross to the other side of the mountain, they had the disagreeable sight of their carriage, which was left on the narrow foot-path, exposed to destruction by overturning into a deep gulley, from which it would have been impossible to extricate it. His Catholic Majesty, in his journey through Catalonia, gave orders for the finishing of this building, and it has for a year past been put to the use for which it was intended.

We now arrive at the hamlet of *la Palma*, and afterwards at the *Venta del Lladoner*; a league further on we find those of *del Cipreret* and *del Tiquet*. Houses and detached farms, but at no great distance from one another, appear, and enliven the dales and little valleys through which we pass: on the mountains, at very great depths, we find layers of *schistus* between *calcareous* beds. At length descending from the mountains, we leave to the left the road which goes from Barcelona to Aragon, and perceive, on the same side, the village of *Pereja*; we enter an alley of poplars which leads to the *Llobregat*, over which we cross by the bridge of Molins de Rey, of which we have already spoken. To the left is the *village* and

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venta of the same name. The road which we then take would be a fine one, if it were not always either muddy or dusty; it leads in a direct line to the gates of Barcelona, and is bordered with poplars, willows, elms, and mulberry-trees. There are frequent ascents and descents, but they are gentle and easy. We see the large village of *San-Feliu*; and pass through it by a broad and very long street, in which there are some good houses. The prospect of the environs of Barcelona now presents itself to us under a new point of view, and with the same magnificence. To the left we have a sight of the village of *Ginestera*, on a hill, and that of *Pluves*, also on a small eminence; in front the castle of Mount-Jouy, and to the right the village of *San-Boy*. After having passed some country-houses, and to the left the hill on which the village of *St. Just* is situated, we perceive Barcelona, which we soon lose behind the hills, with which this road abounds; the view is terminated by a long row of houses, which at one end join the village of *Saria*, and at the other the town of Barcelona.

STATISTICAL ABSTRACT RELATIVE PARTICULARLY TO CATALONIA.

Population. Catalonia had formerly an immense population, if we may judge by the numerous armies which it kept on foot, by the considerable fleets which it equipped, by the conquests which it made in Greece, and lastly by the great

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number of settlements spread over it, and of which the name and memory are alone preserved.

The frequent wars, of which it was the theatre, or which it carried into the neighbouring countries, the cruises and enterprises of the Barbary corsairs, the fall of its manufactures and immense commerce, and the emigration of its inhabitants to Italy, Flanders and America, have gradually decreased its population.

Its greatest decline took place in the 16th century; it was so fatal, that Andrès Navajero, the Venetian ambassador says, *that having travelled through Catalonia in* 1523, *he found it almost all depopulated, and full of bands of robbers and brigands.* The calculation of Don Jayme Caresmar strengthens this assertion. That learned friar, who did honour to his country by the extent of his knowledge and justness of his mind, discovered that this province had lost a quarter of its ancient villages, of which nothing remains but the name.

The population of Catalonia, in 1368, comprehending the counties of Roussillion and Cerdagne, amounted to 365,000 inhabitants; in 1495, to 473,000; but in the year 1553, it had decreased 25,000 souls at least, and was no more than 340,000. It was nearly in this state that it supported itself till the beginning of the 18th century. A paternal government then re-established order and justice in it; industry was revived by the establishment of manufactories; agriculture recovered its energy; commerce its activity; families flocked thither and settled, and the population increased with inconceivable rapidity.

The following table, taken from the different enumerations, made by order of the government, shews the progression of this increase:

Population in 1718	407,132
In 1767 & 1768	722,506
In 1787 & 1788	814,412

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The last is nearly the state of the present population. In the number are,

Parochial Priests	1682
Priests	4926
Monks	4544
Nuns	1257
	12,409
Nobles	1266
Students	6968
Writers	650
Lawyers	370
Servants	20,963
	30,217

Villages, formerly of little note, have also had an increase of population which almost equals that of the smaller towns. Figueras is enlarged; Reuss and Mataro are become large towns; the sea-coast is covered with handsome villages, populous and opulent. Barcelona has enlarged its limits; and its population, which, in 1715, was not more than 37,000 persons, was in 1788, 111,400; in 1798 it is said to have risen to 130,000.

Agriculture and Soil. Of all the provinces of Spain, Catalonia is the most active and industrious, whether in commerce, manufactures, or agriculture.

An ungrateful soil, intersected by mountains and rocks, becomes productive, and even fertile, under the hands of the laborious Catalonians. They cultivate, with the greatest success, the plains and valleys which their province contains; but where their skill appears to greatest advantage is in the poorest and driest lands. They cultivate even craggy rocks, which seem to have been destined only for the residence of deer, and which appear by degrees fertilized fields. The

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Catalonian peasants particularly excel in the art of irrigation: the numerous canals which they make wonderfully assist their labours. In many places there is a regularity, or rather an exact police, maintained for watering, founded on received customs and principles, which were the result of their speculations.

For example, the country about Lerida, which is three leagues long by two broad, is divided by the Segra into two portions, the one la Fontanet and the other Noguera; the former is irrigated by the waters of the Segra, taken at three leagues distance from Lerida, in the county of Villanueva de la Barca, and the latter by the water taken from the little river of la Norguera Aragoneza, near Pinana, at six leagues from Lerida. Each proprietor enjoys, in turn, the right of watering for a limited time, in proportion to the extent of the land which he possesses, for an annual duty of a small quantity of corn. The produce of these duties serves for keeping up the canals, and for the salary of the directors employed in the conducting and distributing of the waters. The administration of this police is confided to a *junto*, or commission, formed by the corregidor, or alcalde-major, a regidor, a cathedral prebendary, an inferior ecclesiastic, and two farmers. This is one of the finest and richest cantons; but Catalonia contains many others that come near it: the plains of Urgel, Cardagne, Vallez, Selva, Panadez, the plain of Iqualada, the environs of Cervera, the superb Campo de Tarragona, and Ampurdan, are all remarkable for their fertility and the variety of their productions.

The lands of Catalonia may be divided into two classes, into plains and vallies, and mountains. The former are excellent; less, however, than many others situated in the south of Spain, the cultivation of which is unfortunately either totally unattended to, or greatly neglected. The latter, or mountains, offer few resources. The industry of the Catalonians however, turns it to a great advantage; consequently productions of all kinds are very numerous in Catalonia.

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There are fruit-trees in abundance, chiefly in the many beautiful gardens which are on the bank of the Segra; in those about Lerida, Balagner, Organa, Gironne, on the banks of the Llobregat, on the Ampurdan, and on the sea-side from Mataro to Barcelona. There are many almond and filbert-trees in the Campo de Tarragona, and in Segara; orange and lemon-trees in the countries about Alella, Taya, Premia, Vilasar, Cabrera, Argentona, Mataro, and all the south side. Figs almost every where, principally in the country of Villa-Franca: Carobs, at Vendrell, at Calasell, on the coast of Tarragona, on that of Tortosa, and from Badalona to Llavaneras. Apple-trees at Arbuellas, Villadro, Selva, Llagostera, Vidreras, in the plain of Bas, and in the innumerable gardens of the country. Walnuts in the countries of Vicq, St. Hilary, St. Hippolito, Arbucias, Vallez, and Gironne.* There are chesnuts in many places, particularly in the country of Gironne, and on the mountain of Santa-Croce de Osso.

Olive-trees are very numerous in Catalonia; they yield annually, on an average, about 1800 loads † of oil, which, at 320 reals of Vellon (3l. 6s. 8d.) produce 80,833l. sterling.

Grain of every kind is raised here: wheat, rye, maize, oats, barley, &c. The south side, the country of Lerida, and the Ampurdan abound in wheat; the mountains and some vallies yield rye and the other grains.

The following table is the quantity and value of them:

	Reals of Vellon.	Sterling.
600,000 loads of wheat at 144 reals, or £1 10 0	86,400,000	£900,000
120,000 loads of rye at 98 reals, or . . . 1 0 0	11,520,000	120,000
22,000 loads of maize at 80 reals, or . . 0 16 8	1,160,000	18,333
	99,080,000	£1,038,333

The harvest of oats is not considerable; that of barley is much more abundant.

* It is said that the walnuts alone annually produce upwards of £35,416 sterling.

† A load is equal to 250 lb. 4 oz. avoirdupoise weight.

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The harvest of wheat rarely suffices for the consumption of the province, which commonly obtains what it wants from Aragon, Italy, Africa, and France.

There are a great many vineyards in the east part of Catalonia the wine of which is excellent; there are some also to the west and north, but the wine is of an inferior quality They gather yearly, on an average, about 60,000 loads (a load is 120 Paris pints). The price of it is different in the different cantons, or according to its quality. The average price is from fifty to sixty reals the load (from 11s. 8d. to 12s. 6d.) The whole produce amounts to about 4,920,000 reals (£51,250.)

Rice is also cultivated in many parts, particularly in the Ampurdan; they commonly gather about 8,000 loads, of three quintals each, which sells for 160 reals, or £.1 13s. 4d. which gives a produce of 1,280,000 reals, or £13,333 6s. 8d. Since the last war, this produce has diminished: the people of Ampurdan, who were the first victims of the unwholesomeness of the air, which was attributed to the cultivation of rice, in a moment destroyed most of their rice fields.

The cultivation of flax and hemp seems to be carried to no great extent; it is attended to, however, in some places, mostly in the country of Lerida. The average harvest in Catalonia produces annually

	Reals of Vellon.	Sterling. £. s. d.
18,000 quintals of hemp, at about 68 reals, £1 15 0 each	3,164,000	32,750 0 0
8,000 quintals of flax, at 196 reals, or £2 0 10 each	1,608,000	16,750 0 0

There are a great many flocks of sheep in the different parts of Catalonia; they are not, however, so numerous as they might be. The quantity of wool obtained from them rarely exceeds 30,000 quintals, which, at the rate of 192 reals, or £1 16s. 8d. each, gives on an average, annually, 5,760,000 reals (£55,000). This quantity is insufficient for the wants of the province, and for supplying its manufac-

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tories; it likewise obtains yearly about 10,000 quintals from Aragon.

Planting is one of the principal objects of the attention of the Catalonians: they vie with one another in multiplying trees of all kinds, and in every part of their province they carefully watch their growth. There are beech-trees on the mountains of Mont-Seny; elms in many places; in the Vallez, on the banks of the Begos, the Llobregat, &c. poplars and willows, pines, cork-trees, and oaks in great abundance, on the Pyrennees, in the Vallez, and in the countries of Hostalric, San Celoni, Rici-de-Arenas, Palafolls, Los Metges, Romana, &c.; pine forests in parts of Solsona, Bergu, Monsec, Mauresa, Mataro, and Gironne; a great number of green oaks in the countries of Vicq, St. Hilairio, Arbucias, Villadrau, Riells, Amer, the Ampurdan, and on the mountains between Gironne and Aulot: a great quantity of shrubs, such as the Arbutus, myrtles, &c. as well on the chain of mountains near Barcelona, as on those of Mont-Negre, Vallgorguina, Mont-Serrat, San-Gran, San-Daniel, beyond Gironne, and between Blanat and San-Felieu de Guinols; cork-trees, in the Conca de Tremp, on the mountains of Alsinella, in the valley of Aro, in the county of Darnius, on the mountains of Resequens, &c. these last trees are extremely numerous. The oaks yield a great quantity of acorns. The cork-trees are stripped of their bark, which furnishes about 33,000 quintals annually; this at 720 reals, or £7 10 each quintal, gives 23,760,000 reals, or £247,500. This province furnishes almost the whole of Europe with cork.

There are very few mulberry-trees in Catalonia, though they thrive very well. They breed consequently fewer silk-worms than some other provinces of Spain; not making much more than 200,000 pounds of silk, which sells for 48 reals, or 10s. the pound.

The madder, the root of which is of great use in dying, was not cultivated in Catalonia till lately, and is still an inconsiderable object.

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In giving here a table of the productions of this province, we are confined to the most remarkable, and such as are absolute necessaries; we have no account to be depended upon of other productions, such as barley, oats, almonds, nuts, chesnuts, carobs, and other fruits.

Productions.	Quantity.	PRICE.		AMOUNT.	
		Reals of Vellon.	Sterling.	Reals of Vellon.	Sterling.
Wool ..	30,000 quint.	192	2 0 0	5,760,000	55,000 0 0
Silk	200,000 lb.	48	0 10 0	9,600,000	100,000 0 0
Wheat ..	600,000 load	144	1 10 0	87,600,000	912,500 0 0
Rye	120,000 load	96	1 0 0	11,520,000	120,000 0 0
Maize ..	22,000 load	80	0 16 8	1,760,000	18,333 6 8
Rice	8,000 load	160	1 13 4	1,280,000	13,333 6 8
Oil	18,000 load	320	3 6 8	5,760,000	60,000 0 0
Wine ..	60,000 load	64	0 13 4	4,920,000	51,250 0 0
Walnuts	35,000 sacks	96	1 0 0	3,400,000	35,416 13 4
Hemp ..	18,000 quint.	168	1 15 0	3,164,000	32,750 0 0
Flax	8,000 quint.	196	2 0 10	1,608,000	16,750 0 0
Cork	33,000 quint.	720	7 10 0	23,760,000	247,875 0 0
			Total	160,124,000	1,663,208 6 8

Manufactures. The labour and industry of the Catalonians are not confined to agriculture; they themselves work the raw materials which it furnishes.

Catalonia had, in the remotest times, celebrated and considerable manufactories. It manufactured cloths and various other woollen stuffs; all kinds of silks and velvets, linens, hemp and cotton cloths; and it had excellent dyers. In speaking of its general commerce, we shall mention the causes which occasioned the decline of its manufactures, and those which revived them in the 18th century; they have rapidly increased in more than one kind, and we shall here give a view of them.

Silk Stuffs. These are manufactured at Manresa, Cardona, and Mataro, which has forty-eight looms, but principally at Barcelona, where there are five hundred and twenty-four. There they make velvets, satins, damasks, silks, tafetas, and gold and silver stuffs. The town of Barcelona alone uses annually 300,000 lbs. of raw silk.

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Tafetas, Handkerchiefs, and Silk Sashes. They make a great quantity of these at Barcelona, where there are a good many little manufactories of this kind: there are a hundred and fifty looms at Reuss, and six hundred at Manresa. At the last place sixty-thousand dozen handkerchiefs are made, which take about 70,000 lbs. of raw silk.

Gauzes. The manufacture of these is considerable at Barcelona, where they are made plain and striped, white, and of all colours. Some time ago a particular manufactory was established there for gauzes in imitation of blond lace.

Silk Twisters. There are some of these in several towns; a great many in Barcelona. There are eighteen frames at Mataro which twist, one year with another, one hundred and twenty-four quintals of silk; and thirty-seven at Tarragona, which twist eleven thousand quintals.

Silk Stockings. These are made at Tarragona, Mataro, Aulot, Manresa, and Barcelona. At Mataro there are fifty-two looms, and at Barcelona nine hundred.

Cotton Stockings. They are made in the Asylum at Gironne, at Arens-del-Mar, Villanova, Mataro, Tarragona, Aulot, and Vicq. In the last town there are three manufactories, at Mataro one hundred and sixteen looms, and at Aulot ninety.

Worsted Stockings. These likewise are made in the Asylum at Gironne, at Arens-del-Mar, Aulot, and Vicq: the town of Aulot makes a great number, and Vicq furnishes twenty-four thousand pair every year.

Blankets. There are several manufactories of blankets in different parts of Barcelona; they are good, but not fine, light, or handsome.

Rateens. There is a manufacture of them at Aulot.

Coarse Cloths, Serges, Frieze. There are a considerable number of manufactories of these to be found at Aulot, Gironne, Tarrassa, Capelladas, Centellas, Sabadel, Esparra-

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guera, Urgell, Camprodon, Cardona, Solsona, Vieq, and Monistrol.

Fine Cloths. Several manufactories are established at Tarrassa, an ancient Roman town, three leagues from Barcelona, where Roman relics are still found: it is the ancient *Egara*. There are seventeen manufactories at Tarrassa, the cloths are of a quality approaching to those of Elbeuf; but they are not sufficiently beaten, and they do not take the dark colours well.

Linens. These are in the hands of private weavers settled at different places, but there is no manufactory on a large scale. Agramunt, Banolas, Capellados, Cardona, and Vicq, are the places where we meet most of the private looms. They are in general common or household linens. The quantity made yearly at Mataro is about two thousand varas: at Vicq the consumption of flax amounts to about three thousand quintals, and of hemp to nine thousand. There are also five manufactories of sail-cloth at Mataro.

Laces and Blonds. These constitute the employment of women and children. The work is principally done at Pineda, Malgrat, San-Celoni, Tosa, Canet, Arens, Callela, San-Pol, Mataro, Esparraguera, Martorell, and Barcelona.

Tapes and Nets. These two articles and the making of lace employ twelve thousand persons in Barcelona alone.

Ribbons and Galloons. There are eighty-nine looms at Mataro, five hundred at Manresa, and two thousand seven hundred at Barcelona.

Silk and Cotton Bindings. Most of these are made at Manresa, where there are four hundred looms; at Reuss there are forty for cotton tapes; at Tarragona they make, one year with another, nine hundred thousand pieces; and at Barcelona they also make a great quantity of both sorts.

Cotton-spinning. There are ninety-nine places for spinning cotton in Barcelona. At Aulot there are two hundred and fifteen machines; and at Reuss, where there are three hun-

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dred and thirty-three, the quantity of cotton thread spun every day weighs three hundred and fifty pounds, which gives employment to one thousand three hundred women.

Cotton Stuffs. These are made in the Asylum at Gironne, at Arens, and at Tosa. There are two manufactories of them at Mataro, five at Aulot, a great number at Reuss, which employ two hundred and forty looms; a still greater number at Barcelona, where they reckon four thousand looms, which employ ten thousand seven hundred persons. Here cottons are woven to be stained in imitation of the Indian calicoes, and for clothes, white, coloured, plain and striped; fustians, muslins, velvets, and nankeens. Muslin is also made at Tarragona. At Barcelona alone the manufacturers make every year one hundred and ninety-five thousand pieces of calico, fine, middling, and of a common quality for printing; thirteen thousand pieces of nankeen, velvets, and striped cotton, nine thousand pieces white for clothes, &c. and three thousand seven hundred pieces of fine and middling muslins.

Printed Calicoes. The manufactories of these are very numerous: they reckon eighteen at Mataro, nineteen at Manresa, nine at Vicq, twelve at Reuss, fourteen at Aulot, eight at Igualada, and two hundred at Barcelona.

Hats. At Barcelona four manufactories; at Manresa two; at Vicq two; at Mataro six. These hats are in general coarse and heavy.

Playing Cards. They are made at Aulot.

Soaps. The soft soap is manufactured by several individuals at Tortosa. For the hard soap there are manufactories at Aulot, Villanova, and Tortosa.

Gun-powder. There are two manufactories at Manresa, but they work only in winter.

Skins, Leather, and Shoe-soles. A sufficient quantity of these are prepared and made to supply the province, to furnish materials for seven hundred thousand pair of shoes,

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which are yearly sent out of Catalonia, and to export shoe-soles to the value of nearly £42,000 sterling. There are several manufactories of these articles at Barcelona, three at Vich, three at Tortosa, seven at Aulot, and eight at Mataro.

Shoes. They make shoes at Barcelona to be sent into the other provinces of Spain, and for exportation to some of the American colonies. Generally seven hundred thousand pair are sent every year out of the country, which produce 7,400,000 reals or upwards of £77,000 sterling.

White Glass. For some time past there have been glass-houses at Barcelona, where panes of every size for windows are made.

Earthenware. There are two manufactories at Tortosa, where a very common sort is made.

Aquafortis. It is made at Manresa.

Salt of Saturn. Two manufactories in the last town.

Cutlery, Iron-ware, and Locksmith's Work. A great many of these articles are made at Cardona and Solsona; but the workmanship is neither delicate nor finished. Shears are principally made at Aulot and Monistrol.

Iron and Brass wire. These are made at Sallent.

Anchors. The forges are at Pineda, Malgrat, San-Pol, Calella, and Arens del Mar.

Fire Arms. A great quantity are made at Barcelona, Igualada, and Ripoll: the last place is very famous for them.

Cannon. There is a very fine foundery at Barcelona, which belongs to the king, the cannon are of brass.

Paper. This branch of commerce has considerably increased. There were but eighty-six mills in Catalonia in 1776; in 1785 they reckoned one hundred and sixty, and at present there are more than two hundred. They have them at Aulot, Alcocer, Bereyte, Manresa, Cenia, Capelladas, San-

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Celoni, Valls, all along the road to Martorell, &c. The quantity made yearly amounts to four hundred and eighty thousand reams. The prices are regulated according to the quality: the mean price is 6s. 8d. the ream, and the total amount is estimated at £160,000 sterling.

Stained Papers. There are three manufactories at Barcelona.

Brandy. The distilleries are at Manresa, Mataro, Tortosa, Villanova, Alellu, Calella, Reuss, Agramunt, Arens, Salon, Canet, Valls, Vilasar, Pineda, besides various other places. The principal entrepôt is at Reuss. The quantity distilled is generally thirty-five thousand pipes every year, which, at 720 reals or £7. 10s. a pipe, give 24,200,000 reals or £262,500 sterling.

Commerce. While the industry and activity of the Catalonians are turned to agriculture in the interior of the country, those of the inhabitants of the maritime districts are chiefly devoted to the profitable speculations of commerce, to which the situation of Catalonia is peculiarly favourable. This province has a vast extent of coast, where there are several harbours, of no great importance indeed, but as they serve to protect the merchantmen, as entrepôts, and as points of rendezvous. There are five of them, Rosas, Palamos, Cadaques, Barcelona, and Salon,

The commerce of Catalonia was in a flourishing state in remote times; and since, under the dominion of the Counts; it became still more so under the kings of Aragon. In the 13th century this province had a great number of manufactories: it furnished the island of Corsica, the kingdom of Naples, Smyrna, Alexandria, and various other places of Greece, and even Frizeland and Holland with cloths. It manufactured velvets, silks, linens, and calicoes, and exported the produce of its industry to distant countries. It had a great number of ships, some of which were armed vessels for the protection of the coast: at that time its commerce ex-

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tended to the opposite shores of Africa, the Archipelago, Syria, and Egypt. The Catalonians had factories on the confines of Europe and Asia, on the banks of the Tanais, at the end of the 14th century. We find a Catalonian and a Biscayan consul among those of different nations settled at Azoph at the mouth of the river, imploring the clemency of Timour or Tamerlane, and making him presents, when that prince returned triumphant in 1397, from his expedition into the Kipzac, to the East and to the West of the Caspian Sea and the Wolga.

The epocha of its decline was at the end of the 15th and beginning of the 16th century. The introduction of the duty of *bolla* or *seal*, on manufactured stuffs, depressed the manufacturers; their looms languished, and the negligence of the government, with the vexations created by its subaltern agents, put an end to all kind of emulation; the Barbary corsairs harassed, reduced, and destroyed commerce, and Catalonia at the same time became the theatre of frequent long wars. A considerable decrease of population was the consequence of these causes: the province lost its inhabitants, industry, manufactures, commerce, wealth, and splendour. It was a country without means and without resources when Philip V. added it to his dominions.

The protection it received from that monarch and his successors revived the natural activity of its inhabitants: they recovered their energy, and Catalonia became again one of the most commercial and wealthiest provinces of Spain. Its coasts are covered with ships, and the inhabitants of the parts near the sea have become seamen or traders: the whole length of the shore furnishes harbours or roads; ships and boats are seen all along; it is impossible to follow them from Blanas to Tortosa, without admiring the prodigious industry and unceasing activity of the Catalans.

The natural productions of the province furnish an important branch of its commerce. The rice, flax, hemp, acorns,

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wool, and silk are consumed in the country. Most of the nuts and almonds go to England and the North: of 26,000 sacks of nuts, 20,000 are sent to England every year, and produce 26,000l. sterling. Cork in sheets is sent to the North; about 30,000 quintals are exported, with which from fifteen to eighteen ships are usually freighted: bottle corks go to France; the quantity is commonly 1200 quintals, together 31,200 quintals, producing 22,462,996 reals, or 233,989l. sterling. About 1200 quintals are likewise sent into different provinces of Spain.

A part of the oil is kept in the country for its own consumption, and for the manufactures: about 8000 loads of it are sent into France and Holland, and bring about 2,560,000 reals, or 26,666l. 13s. 4d. sterling.

A part of the wine is drunk in the country, but a great part is converted into brandy, of which about 4000 loads are sent to Italy, and sell for 256,000 reals, or 2,666l. 13s. 4d. sterling.

The most important branch of the commerce of Catalonia consists of the exportation of its manufactures. Muslins, flannels, cotton counterpanes, mixed stuffs of cotton and thread, and of cotton and silk, are likewise partly kept for the consumption of the country, but at least two-thirds of them are exported to Valencia, Saragossa, and Madrid. One-twelfth and a half of the linens and cotton velvets, of the nankeens and muslins are used in the province, and the rest are exported, viz. two-twelfths and a half to the other provinces of Spain, and two-thirds to the colonies. Barcelona alone, one year with another, manufactures them to the value of 463,333l. sterling, and what are exported amount to upwards of 291,666l. sterling.

Silk handkerchiefs and sashes are articles of considerable importance, and there are a great many made in Catalonia: Manresa furnishes annually 60,000 dozen, which produce 8,400,000 reals, or 91,666l. 13s. 4d. at the rate of 140 reals the dozen. Ten thousand dozen are sent to Aragon, Biscay,

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and the two Castiles, and 35,000 dozen to America, which together produce the sum of 96,041l. 13s. 4d. sterling.

A great quantity of worsted stockings are made in this province; the town of Vicq furnishes 24,000 pair yearly, half of which are sent into the adjacent provinces, and bring about 500l. sterling.

The quantity of silks and silk stockings sent to Madrid is but small; the chief export of these is to the American colonies.

A part of the coarse cloths and coarse woollens, worsted sashes and blankets, linens, tapes, sail-cloth, and anchors remain in the province: a great part of the coarse cloths and serges serves for the clothing of the troops, and is sent, made up in clothes, into the different provinces of Spain: the fine cloths are sent to Madrid, Aragon, and other places. Thread nets are sent to every part of Spain.

The cannon are reserved for the king: the fire-arms are sent to other parts of Spain, and to Spanish America.

The iron-ware goes partly to the other provinces, and partly to America.

The laces are almost all shipped for the New World.

The printed calicoes are sent to Valencia, Saragossa, Madrid, and the two Castiles, but most of them to America. This branch of exportation is very considerable.

Of 480,000 reams of paper, about 10,000 only are used in the province, consequently 470,000 reams are exported, of which 220,000 are taken by Aragon, the two Castiles, and Estremadura. It produces a sum of 15,240,000 reals, or 156,666l. 13s. 4d. sterling.

Of brandy 35,000 pipes are exported, of which 4000 go to Guernsey and Alderney, 10,000 to England, and the rest to Holland and the North of Europe, even to Russia. They produce 25,200,000 reals, or 262,500l. sterling.

The value of the exportation of shoes furnished by Barcelona has been already stated: 200,000 pair go to America, and 500,000 into the interior of Spain.

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They ship annually from Barcelona so great a quantity of the sweepings of the houses, that the produce amounts to 60,000 ducats.

In Catalonia a commerce is carried on for silver coined, which goes to France, and, though it is prohibited under the severest penalties, it is very considerable.

A TABLE OF THE EXPORTS OF CATALONIA.

EXPORTS TO FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

Commodities.	Quantity exported.	AMOUNT. In reals of Vellon.	In Sterling. £.	s.	d.
Nuts	26,000 sacks	2,496,000	26,000	0	0
Oil	8,000 loads	2,560,000	26,666	15	4
Cork in sheets	30,000 quint.	21,600,000	225,000	0	0
Bottle corks	1,200 quint.	862,996	8,989	0	10
Wine	4,000 loads	256,000	2,666	13	4
Barcelona linens and cotton stuffs	3,161,000 varas	28,320,667	295,006	18	4
Manresa silk handkerchiefs	35,000 dozen	4,900,000	51,041	13	4
Paper	220,000 reams	7,240,000	73,333	6	8
Brandy	350,000 pipes	25,200,000	262,500	0	0
Shoes	200,000 pair	2,114,284	22,023	15	10
Sweepings of Houses	----------	600,000	6,875	0	0
	Total	90,209,847	1,000,103	5	8

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EXPORTS TO THE INTERIOR OF SPAIN.

Commodities.	Quantity exported.	AMOUNT. In Reals of Vellon.	In Sterling. £.	s.	d.
Barcelona linens and cotton stuffs	1,026,041 varras	7,886,867	82,113	3	4
Manresa silk handkerchiefs	10,600 dozen	1,400,000	14,583	6	8
Vicq worsted stockings ..	12,000 pair	48,000	500	0	0
Paper	250,000 reams	8,000,000	83,333	6	8
Shoes	500,000 pair	5,285,712	55,059	10	0
Shoe-soles ..	.....	4,000,000	41,666	13	4
Cork.....	1,200 quint.	864,000	9,000	0	0
Total Interior Exports		27,484,579	286,256	0	0
Foreign Exports		90,209,847	1,000,103	3	8
Total Exports ..		117,694,426	1,286,359	3	8

There are some commodities omitted in the first of these tables, such as nuts, almonds, &c. of which it is impossible to procure any tolerably accurate statement, but the profits of which are in favour of the province.

If to the above sums were added the amount of detached articles dependent on some manufactures, and which the proprietors keep a profound secret, it would be found that the commerce of Catalonia amounts to a very considerable sum.

With respect to its imports, this province frequently receives corn from Aragon and from France; it likewise receives about 10,000 quintals of wool and 80,000 lbs. of silk from Aragon; and 100,000 lbs. of silk from the kingdom of Valencia; it receives Lyons silks, Gange and Nismes silk stockings, fine cloths, linens, essences, perfumes, pomatums,

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jewellery, and millinery from France. It is furnished with superfine cottons, herrings, and codfish, by England, and with some spices by Holland. Nevertheless the amount of its imports is much lower than that of its exports.

Commerce in general, but particularly exportation, is carried on along the coast of Catalonia; in the five ports of the province, in the roads of Tarragona and Tortosa, on every part of the coast from Calella to Mataro, along which there are an infinity of little roads always full of ships; but Barcelona is the most considerable port; then follow those of Salona and Tarragona, and the road of Tortosa.

Carriage, Carriages, and Inns. Catalonia, so opulent, so industrious, and perhaps the most active province in Spain, is nevertheless one of those that have the worst roads, and where they are the least taken care of. Those entering Catalonia from the French part of the Pyrenees have been already noticed, and those also leading from Barcelona to the frontiers of Aragon and of the kingdom of Valencia: the cross-roads are still worse, and are frequently impassable, particularly in rainy weather, and during the melting of the snows, on account of the number of rivers to be crossed, which are then impetuous torrents. Travellers are continually liable to be stopped by the Llobregat, the Fluvia, the Ter, the Muga, the Tordera, the Bezos, the Noya, and several others: very few bridges are to be met with; not any in the most frequented, most important, and most dangerous parts.

To atone for the badness of the roads, there are plenty of inns throughout Catalonia. In this province we meet none of those disagreeable *mesones*, or *posadas*, so common in Spain, which are a torment to travellers, where they meet only with bare bedsteads, eat only what they bring or send out to purchase, and where they are sometimes obliged to cook their own victuals, without being able to recover from the fatigue of their journey.

On the contrary, there are a great many inns on the roads

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in Catalonia, and, though some of them are bad, many are, if not good, at least tolerable: those of Figueras, Calella, Gironne, Barcelona, and Igualada, are good, and those of Mataro and Lerida excellent: their usual price for a meal is two piecettes, or twenty-pence.

They travel in Catalonia, as in the rest of Spain, in coaches drawn by six mules, called there *coches de colleras*, in *Calechas*, a kind of open chaise drawn by two mules, and in *Volantes*, another kind of open chaise, rather smaller, drawn by one mule. These carriages travel about eight leagues a day. A covered waggon sets out once a week for Madrid; by this conveyance those persons travel who either cannot or will not afford a dearer mode. Those who go post in Catalonia ride on horseback, for there are no post-horses to be met with for carriages.

Goods are conveyed in carts drawn by four or five mules, yoked in a line following one another: they carry immense weights. The mules are handsome, strong, well fed, and skilfully managed. The Catalans are the most adroit, expert, and attentive carriers; those of the other provinces are not equal to them either in driving their carts, or in the manner of taking care of their mules.

SKETCH OF THE NATURAL HISTORY OF CATALONIA.

The natural history of Catalonia is not well known: it would furnish many objects of instruction and curiosity, and it is a pity that some able naturalist does not bend his attention on this province, and display the treasures it contains.

We only know that there is a great number of iron mines, particularly near Alins and Taull; that petrifactions are found on the mountain opposite to the *Torre alta de Sampere*, but on the side turned from it; lead mines near Tortosa; and amethysts, topazes, and coloured crystals near Vicq, which the goldsmiths of Barcelona cut, mount, and sell; coal

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mines near the new bridge of Manresa, at Isona, Tarassa, San-Saturne, Subiras, near Martorell, Sellent, in the territory of Llansa, near the sea, and at Montanola. The last, which is in the diocese of Vicq, is very considerable; that of Clansa is accounted the best; and the merchants of Barcelona are endeavouring to have it opened and worked.

Catalonia contains a great many mineral waters; some cold, some hot. Of the former, the most remarkable are those of Monistrol, near Mont-Serrat; those of Vall de Ebron, a league from Barcelona; those of Tortosa, San-Hilario, and Rivas, fifteen leagues from Barcelona: the two last of these are *gazeous*. Of the latter the principal are those of Caldas, Malavilla, and Taull, in the corregidorat of Talaru; those of Garriga and of Caldetas, in the corregidorat of Mataro; those of Caldas de Mombuy, Gironne, and Esparraguera, near Mont-Serrat; of the Espluga, near the monastery of Poblet; and of Torello, or San-Feliu de Torello, eleven leagues from Barcelona. All these places are more or less frequented, but the nature of the waters is not well known, for they have not been accurately analyzed.

Marbles of different kinds are very common in Catalonia. There is a black marble streaked with with white, near the Torre de Sempere, in the neighbourhood of Barcelona. It was at a former period used for the columns of the Carmelite convent, and for those of La Merci, and lately for the cisterns at the new custom-house at that town. There is likewise a black marble with white veins, near the *Torre alta*, belonging to the same person, but it is of a superior quality; a whitish marble on the opposite side of the mountain which faces this *Torre*; branching marbles, forming landscapes and figures of various kinds, in the environs of Tortosa; marbles of different colours in the territory of San-Vicens del Horts, on the other side of Molens de Rey, to the right of the Venta del Cipreret, near the road of Villa-Franca de Panadez; about sixty quarries of mixt marbles near Sallent; thirty-seven

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specimens, well wrought and highly polished, were presented to the king by Messrs. Xipell.

There are two mountains remarkable for their uniformity, situated very near the sea, between Figueras and Gironne; they are both of a pyramidal form and of equal height; their bases touch. Mr. Bowles says, that they have all the signs of ancient volcanoes.

Mont-Serrat is equally remarkable for the composition, form, arrangement, and position of the rocks upon it. It is a compound of calcarious stone, sand, and pebbles cemented together, forming the kind of aggregation known to naturalists by the appellation of *pudding-stone*. The rich earth, on part of these rocks being dissolved by the action of the rain-water, has formed crevices full of trees and aromatic plants. This vegetation is the more extraordinary, as there is no spring on the mountain: the streamlets sometimes seen there appear to me to proceed from reservoirs formed by rains in the crevices of the mountains, and running in the bed of porous stones which lie across the middle of it. This mountain is one of the most extraordinary, as well as one of the most pleasant places in the world. The cause we have assigned for the intermitting streams on Mont-Serrat is, perhaps, applicable to the intermission of a spring at Tamarite, near Lerida.

Among the natural curiosities of Catalonia, certainly the most remarkable is the famous Mountain of Salt, near the town of Cardona, sixteen leagues from Barcelona: it is an immense mass, a real mountain, nearly three miles in circumference, composed almost entirely of salt. It is about five hundred feet high, without cleft or crevice; and is situated close to the river Cardonero, towards which its side is cut almost perpendicularly. The salt of which it is composed is very white in almost all parts of it; a small quantity of a reddish and of a bluish cast is found, which, however, becomes white on being reduced to powder. The rains cause no diminution of the mass. The river at the foot of it is

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salt, and becomes still salter after rain: it kills the fish, but this effect is not perceived beyond three leagues. At Cardona they make and sell, at a very cheap rate, various little transparent articles; such as altars, figures of saints, crosses, chandeliers, salt-cellars, &c.; they are as clear as crystal, and to all appearance as lasting.

STATE OF THE ARTS AND SCIENCES IN CATALONIA.

The liberal arts are little cultivated in Catalonia; the genius of the inhabitants is principally turned to the useful arts, and especially those connected with manufactures. There are, however, at Barcelona, and in some other towns of Catalonia, painters who embellish the outside of the houses with paintings in fresco, from the works of the great masters, which they copy skilfully.

Two drawing-schools have been lately established in this province; one at Barcelona and the other at Aulot. I know nothing of the latter; the former is a good one, and has already been mentioned. Designs relative to manufactures are the chief objects of these schools; they may, however, form the painter, the sculptor, and architect.

But even in the arts connected with manufactures and maritime commerce the Catalans have hitherto shown no invention, though they are active and intelligent imitators of the inventions of other countries: this is fully proved by the great number and variety of their manufactures, and the ready sale they find for them. They are successful in the mechanic arts, which indeed are more cultivated in Catalonia than in any other province of Spain: this may certainly, in some measure, be attributed to the active and intelligent genius of the Catalans, but is still more owing to another cause, founded on opinion, and that is, that in Catalonia artizans are treated with respect, while, in the greater part of

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the kingdom they are despised, or looked down upon, and trades considered as mean.

The genius of the Catalans is likewise turned to science, and Catalonia has produced men who have distinguished themselves in that career. In the principal towns, and particularly in Barcelona, we find many well-informed men, who owe the knowledge they have acquired entirely to their taste for study, their application, and the happy bent of their native penetrating understanding. There are enlightened theologians, profound lawyers, and men of letters. Medicine may still be a little behind-hand, but modern natural philosophy and natural history have made some advance.

This province has produced several writers worthy of praise. Ramon Vidal de Bezalu, and Godefroi de Fosca, a Benedictine, published each, in the 13th century, an "Art of Poetry," in the Provençal tongue. That of Vidal was the first of the kind that ever appeared in Spain. Roberto Selot, Emanuel Dier, and Vital de Canellas distinguished themselves in the 14th and 15th centuries: the first wrote a history of Catalonia; the second wrote on veterinary medicine, at a time when that science was not known; the last, bishop of Huesca, was a famous lawyer; by command of the king and of the states of Aragon, he compiled the ancient laws of Aragon and of Sobrarbe, and formed a new civil and criminal code. The 16th century produced Antie Roca, of Gironne, who wrote on philosophy, and published a Catalan and Latin dictionary; Gabriel de Tarraga, a native of Tarraga, whose writings on medicine are extant; the theologian, Jerome of Cervera Loreta; the poet, Juan Boscan, of Barcelona; Antonio Aguilara, of Junquera, who has left writings on the practice of medicine; and the lawyer, Juan Pedro Fontanella, of Vicq, who was the oracle of the bar, and is to this day the guide and authority of the Catalan lawyers. In the 17th century, Rafael Mox, of Gironne; Pedro Cananas, of Villa-Franca de Paneder; and Andreu, of Barcelona, published their works; the first wrote on the diseases of women, the second on judi-

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cial astrology, and the third gave a *Practica Gotholanorum*. The same age gave birth to three historians, Juan Gaspard Reig y Jalpi, of Blanas, who published a history of Gironne; Estevan de Cerbera, who gave one of Catalonia; and Jerome Pujades, of Barcelona, whose writings are esteemed: Balthazar de Segovia, another Catalan, wrote in the same period on the art of engraving. Catalonia also produced Francisco Moli, and Cristobal Galvet, of Lerida, the former known by his writings on the canon law; the latter known by his sermons. Barcelona was honoured by the birth of a learned lady, Juana Morella; and a painter of distinguished merit, Viladomat, was also born there: they have both been already mentioned.

We shall just mention here the names of four learned men whom we have already noticed, and who did honour to the 18th century: Jacobo Salvador distinguished himself by his knowledge in natural history; Jacobo Cavennar, a regular canon of St. Augustin, who died in 1791; Jerome Pasqual, of the convent of Las Avellanas, near Lerida, a learned and worthy man; and, lastly, Pedro Virgili, who was the restorer of surgery in Spain, who founded the schools at Barcelona and Cadiz, and was rewarded for his labours with the appointment of first surgeon to the king. He died in 1776, at the age of seventy-seven.

Besides the academies, the schools of different kinds, and the public libraries in Catalonia, there were formerly two academies in this province under the title of *Gay Science*, on the model of that which was then established at Toulouse, and which has been transmitted to our days under the name of *Academie des Jeux floreux*. One of them was founded at Barcelona, towards the end of the 14th century, by John I. king of Aragon, who began to reign in 1387, and it was formed by two supporters of that of Toulouse, whom the king of France sent at the request of that prince. A party separating from this academy, formed a similar establishment at Tortosa, at the commencement of the 15th century, under

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king Martin. Here the Provençal poetry was cultivated, verses were recited and sung, and prizes decreed to the victors. The academy of *gay science* at Tortosa, supported itself but a very short time; that of Barcelona had greatly declined so early as when Ferdinand I. ascended the throne in 1410: that monarch wished to revive the spirit of it, and gave the direction of it to the Marquis de Villena, at that time celebrated for his literary talents. That nobleman neglected nothing in his power to accomplish the wishes of his sovereign, but his efforts were ineffectual. Since that period the Catalans have made little progress in poetry, and, the works of Volfongona excepted, nothing striking in their language is known.

CHARACTER, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, HABITS, DRESS, AND LANGUAGE.

The Catalans are charged with asperity of character, roughness of expression, and vehemence of action. There are grounds for this charge; but if we enquire into the cause, and at the same time recollect the good qualities which atone for those defects, we shall perhaps be less disposed to blame them.

The Catalans, accustomed under the kings of Aragon to share the legislative power with the sovereign, to look upon their prince only as count of Barcelona, and to pay no taxes but such as they chose to grant, considered themselves as all partaking of the supreme authority, and each in particular as a little sovereign. In those days they had ideas of independence which they long cherished, and which at length degenerated into a republican spirit. Hence the haughtiness peculiar to the inhabitants of this province, the authoritative tone, the repugnance to whatever has the slightest appearance of command in another, or even of subordination.

The Catalan tongue contributes to the roughness of expression complained of; its pronunciation is hard, sharp, and

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dry, and it often utters the tenderest and most empassioned sentiment without grace or delicacy.

Activity is the basis of the Catalan character; it is blunt in persons who have not received the polish of education. But we must do the Catalans justice: this propensity to motion, this natural vivacity impelled them to great undertakings; it frequently rendered them victorious in the times of the counts of Barcelona and kings of Aragon; it led them into Greece and gained them important conquests; it carried them to the island of Majorca, and there destroyed the empire of the Saracens; it established the dominion of the kingdom of the kings of Aragon in the island of Sardinia; it guided them on the seas, and carried them to every part of the new world; it opened the career of the sciences to them; it turned their genius to commerce, and expanded it in every branch; it developed, sustained, and increased their industry; it improved their agriculture; it was the grand spring of the establishment of their manufactures, and, in fine, of the opulence of their province.

The Catalans are indefatigable in their undertakings; they have a horror at idleness; no obstacle can deter them. The activity of their genius, and the ambition that attends it, lead them to every part of the world: there is not a town, not a port in Spain, India, or Spanish America, where Catalans are not to be found; they are to be met with in France, Italy, England, Germany, in all the ports of Europe, and throughout the colonies. They are valiant, and sometimes even rash; they are not to be terrified by the greatest dangers; in war they never fly, nor do they ever give up an enterprize. They, the Aragonese, and Galicians, are the best soldiers in Spain. Their bravery and firmness have been so often proved, that for ages past no doubt has ever been entertained of them; they have several times displayed them with the greatest energy, and in the remotest periods;* and in the

* The Catalans conquered the island of Majorca, and reduced that of Sardinia. The remains of the army which had assisted the king of

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beginning of the 18th century, they sustained the united efforts of the armies of France and Spain against Catalonia.

After what has been just said, it will be easily imagined that they have very violent passions: in fact, they can encounter any thing to satisfy them. The desire of wealth makes them industrious; emulation makes them active, leads them to every part of the world, and enables them to brave the perils of long voyages; and glory blinds them to every kind of danger. When they love, they love warmly; but their hatred is implacable, they have rarely sufficient strength of mind to stifle their resentment. But we are not, therefore, to imagine the Catalan disposed to mischief; he is not so naturally. He works himself into a rage, and is loud, but seldom commits acts of violence. In a political point of view the Catalan is restless and factious; he is for ever sighing for a liberty, or rather independence,* which he has often

Aragon to take Sicily, collected into a body and went, at the beginning of the 14th century, to the assistance of Andronicus the elder, emperor of Constantinople: they beat the Turks and delivered Asia, but became soon after the terror of Greece; and they defeated the emperor Michael, son of Andronicus, both by sea and land. Having made themselves masters of Gallipoli, they intercepted the commerce of Constantinople and the Black Sea, and at the same time ravaged the Hellespont and the frontiers of Europe and Asia; they took Athens, where they placed a prince of their own nation, and divided Attica and Beotia, among them. In alliance with the Venetians, they again fought in conjunction with them for the Greeks against the Genoese: and they distinguished themselves in the famous naval engagement fought under the walls of Constantinople on the 13th of February, 1352.

* Catalonia has rebelled so many times, has so frequently and obstinately resisted its sovereigns, and has so often attempted to choose foreign princes, or erect itself into a republic, that a sketch of its insurrections would almost be an abstract of its history.

In 1273 the Catalonian nobility refused to follow their king, James the Conqueror, in his expedition against the kingdom of Valencia, under the pretence of being privileged to fight only in and for their own country.

In 1277, Catalonia took up arms against its sovereign, Peter III.

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attempted to acquire, and which has so frequently impelled him to take up arms. But, as devoted in his attachment as

king of Aragon, under pretence of his having neglected to convoke the states, and to swear to observe its privileges.

In 1283, the Catalonian nobility, in league with the Aragonese nobility, took up arms against Peter III. at the moment when he was attacked by a French army, and compelled him to grant them new privileges.

In 1460, the Catalans rose to deliver Don Carlos, the son and heir of John II. king of Aragon, out of prison. In less than a fortnight Catalonia equipped a fleet of twenty-four galleys, and raised a considerable army, which besieged and took Fraga, an Aragonese town, and forced king John to restore his son to liberty, to give him up to the Catalans, and to sign a treaty, the terms of which were dictated by the rebels. The death of the young prince, which happened on the 23d of September 1461, and which was suspected to have been caused by poison administered by his mother-in-law, confirmed the Catalans in their rebellion. They at first attempted to erect themselves into a republic; but soon after, declaring John to have forfeited the sovereignty of Catalonia, they gave themselves to the king of Castile. They besieged the queen of Aragon and her son the infant Fernando, at Gironne, took the town, &c. Being given up by the king of Castile, they called in Don Pedro the infant of Portugal, and proclaimed him king in 1464, in virtue of the rights of his grandfather the Count of Urgel. This prince dying in 1466, they chose René, duke of Anjou, whose son, John de Calabre, went to Barcelona, and took possession of his new sovereignty, but he also died in the end of the year 1470. The Catalans then formed themselves into a republic. During the whole of this time they were never without arms in their hands: they had by turns good and bad fortune, and they resisted all the forces of the king of Aragon. However, in 1471, they lost Gironne, Ostalric, and Rosas. After surprising and very nearly taking the king at Peralta, they were completely beaten on the 5th of November, in the same year. At length Barcelona, being closely besieged, was compelled to surrender on the 17th of October 1472, after a blockade of one hundred and forty-four days and a siege of six months. From that time Catalonia submitted, after having persisted for twelve years in this rebellion.

In 1640, two deputies of Catalonia being arrested at Madrid, by command of Philip IV. the whole province rose in an instant, and flew to arms: they declared that monarch to have forfeited his sovereignty, and

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terrible in his hatred, he is ready to make every sacrifice for a prince who knows how to gain his love. At the commencement of the war with France, Catalonia made the king an offer to defend him themselves against all the troops of the enemy. In the number of the volunteers there were 30,000 monks or priests: this offer was not accepted, chiefly on account of the nature of the war, which was to be an offensive one, and required an army of regular troops. Catalonia, far from having suffered by the campaigns of which it was the theatre, grew rich by the sums expended in the province, and it is obvious that a war with France is as useful to it as one with England is disastrous.

The Catalans are charged with an eagerness for money, which induces them to undergo any labour in the acquisition of it, and to take the greatest care to keep it. But the fact is they spend as readily as they earn, and are capable of generosity, of which they gave a striking proof in the unhappy periods of the French revolution. A multitude of French peo-

erected themselves into a republic; but being closely pressed, they gave themselves to Louis XIII. king of France, whom they proclaimed Count of Barcelona in 1641. They persisted in their rebellion till 1652.

In 1689 it revolted anew, on pretence of a breach of its privileges, and again became a republic, but was soon compelled to yield to superior force.

In 1705, after swearing allegiance to Philip V. it gave itself to Charles, Archduke of Austria, and proclaimed him king under the name of Charles III. It obstinately and often successfully sustained the united efforts of the Spanish and French armies. Deserted by the king whom it had chosen, it maintained itself in the part it had taken, and was subdued by numbers after a resistance of nine years.

Some partial insurrections have taken place in Catalonia since that period, particularly in Barcelona, in 1772, and in 1788.

So decided is the character of independence and pride, especially among the nobility of Catalonia, that some families have constantly refused to take any state titles and dignities. They began to yield in this respect only since the king's last journey into this province, where that prince and the royal family conciliated the Catalans.

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ple, men, women, and children of all ranks, found help and consolation in this province. Reuss, Monblanc, Blanas, and the frontiers towards France, particularly distinguished themselves in that respect.

The inhabitants of Catalonia have a decided taste for the ceremonies of the church, for processions, public feasts, assemblies, balls, dances, and other meetings. The *romerias* are in great vogue; these are journies on certain days to solitary chapels, and to hermitages, whither the people flock in crowds. The bull feasts have scarcely found their way here.

The Catalan has a national pride peculiar to him: he sees nothing above himself. He looks down on other Spaniards, he even despises a part of the nation, and his hatred of the Castilian is beyond all expression. He does not love strangers; the French with whom he has most occasion to communicate he hates the most; the cause of which is very ancient: it takes its source in the old quarrels and frequent wars between the kings of France and those of Aragon; the wars of the last century increased it; Catalonia gave itself to France, and the Catalans can never forgive the French for giving it up to its old masters. The war of the succession at the beginning of the last century completed the animosity: the French sacked Catalonia, subdued the spirit of its inhabitants, and compelled them to acknowledge the legitimate authority of their king. The facts are impressed on the minds of these people with indelible characters, and they retain in their hearts an invincible aversion to the nation that brought them into subjection.

The mantle and round hat common in the other parts of Spain are not worn in Catalonia; and the *Mayo* jacket is scarcely ever seen: a close coat in the French fashion is the usual dress in almost all conditions. The peasants who live in the mountains wear a double-breasted waistcoat, and over it a kind of wide great coat which goes no lower than the knees, they call it a *gambeto*. There is besides these a variety

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of dresses among the common people of both sexes, the details of which would be too long here, but shall be given in another place.*

The Catalans have a tongue peculiar to themselves: it is the ancient language of the provinces of the South of France, the inhabitants of which took Catalonia from the Moors, and, peopling it, introduced their laws, customs, and usages; and their *patois* or dialect, called the *Limousine tongue*, has continued down to our days in Gascony, Languedoc, and Provence; where it has undergone alterations more or less remarkable, occasioned by the mixture of the modern French; it has remained purer in Catalonia and Roussillon, but with a mixture of Castilian in the former of these two provinces. The Catalan tongue has lost that agreeable sweetness which formerly characterized it, and which is better preserved in the kingdom of Valencia; it has taken, in the mouth of the Catalan, hard terminations and a rough and disagreeable pronunciation; it has likewise at present a great resemblance to the modern French tongue, in the construction and turn of expression, in the grammar rules, and in the sameness of a great many of its words, which differ from the French only in the termination. It is spoken throughout Catalonia with considerable variation, according to the different districts; with greater purity in the mountains, and more altered in large towns. The national prejudice of the Catalan makes him prefer his language to that of the Spaniards, the Castilian is therefore little in use in Catalonia, and when it is heard there, it is disfigured and scarcely to be known in consequence of the mixture of Catalan phrases and turns.

* In the part which treats of the general customs of Spain.

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THE KINGDOM OF VALENCIA.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS.

The kingdom of Valencia is one of the smallest provinces of Spain. It is bounded on the north, south, and west by Catalonia, the kingdom of Murcia, New Castile, and Aragon; the Mediterranean bathes the whole of the east; forming a coast almost sixty leagues in extent. The length of it from north to south is sixty-seven leagues; and its breadth from east to west is ten leagues at the northern extremity, which runs in a point between Catalonia and Aragon; six leagues at the southern extremity, which adjoins the kingdom of Murcia; and twenty leagues in the middle part.

This province formerly contained many independent settlements; but this independence was destroyed by the Carthaginians, who conquered this beautiful country. Some towns that still preserved their liberty, when the Romans made Spain the theatre of the war against the Carthaginians, were subdued after a resistance

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more or less protracted. Among those towns, Saguntum, now Murviedro, will always be celebrated for the length and vigour of its defence, as well as for the greatness of the courage and the heroism of its inhabitants.

The Romans were driven from this province by the Goths, who, in their turn, were subdued by the Moors: this was the era (713) in which the kingdom of Valencia was established. It was dependent at first on the caliphs of Damascus; but it soon afterwards fell under the dominion of the kings of Cordova. In the frequent revolutions of the Moorish empire, the kingdom of Valencia very often changed masters; it even had at times its own kings. Don Jayme united this kingdom, in 1236, to that of Aragon: at length the marriage of Ferdinand the Catholic with Isabella of Castile, intermixing and merging their rights and states, the kingdom of Valencia has since made part of the Spanish monarchy.

This province preserved its privileges for a long time after the union: it had its particular laws, its juries, or heads of municipalities, (*ciudadanos*) whose authority was great, and who acquired nobility when they had exercised their functions in the towns of Valencia, Xativa, and Orihuela. They had also their particular states which shared the legislative authority with the sovereign. These states, whose cham-

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crease the means of work, and diffuse ease among the Valencians. The men of this country possess the vigour of health, and are frank and lively: the women are handsome; their *embonpoint* takes nothing from their graces; they have a suavity of manner, and a sprightliness which render their society agreeable.

Road from the Frontiers of New Castile to Valencia, 7 Leagues.

Limits of New Castile on the Mountain of *Las Cabrillas*.

	LEAGUES.
Venta del Relator	1
Venta de Bunol	2
Venta del Moral	½
Chiva, (a village)	½
Quarte, (a village)	2
Mislata, (a village)	½
Valencia	½

In leaving Aranjuez and Madrid, to go into the kingdom of Valencia, we continue to climb and descend the mountains of Las Cabrillas, which renders the road extremely difficult. After an hour's travelling we arrive at the Venta del Relator, a lonely house in the midst of these mountains, built by a reporter of the council of finances, for the convenience of travellers. The road, always bad, becomes worse at a little distance further on, where we are obliged to climb up a very steep and stony ascent.

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The mountains we have now come over are calcareous: in spite of their being rugged, steep and fatiguing, we here begin to observe the effects of the industry of the Valencians, who have neglected no part susceptible of cultivation; and who carry it even to places the most difficult of access. This view gives a secret satisfaction to the traveller, whose pleasure is so much the greater, as he has been travelling over some of the sterile plains and rocky arid mountains of New Castile. We enjoy a delicious prospect when we arrive at the summit of these mountains. The immense plain in which the town of Valencia is situated presents itself to the astonished beholder: it is a view the extent of which does not permit a detailed examination, but which altogether presents a mixture of settlements and cultivated lands, of houses and villages rising in the middle of a verdant carpet. The town of Valencia is seen at the end of this plain; all the habitations which surround it seem as if they were part of it, and we imagine that we see the largest town in the world: the sea terminates the back ground of the picture, and adds to its beauty.

We descend these mountains by a road as bad as that we have quitted. We find at the foot of them the Venta de Bunol, two leagues from that of del Relator; it is near a little town of the same name, situated on the river Siete-

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Aguas; its population is about 1200 inhabitants, and it has a paper manufactory: it is said that it was formerly called Benularon. We soon after come to the Venta del Moral, then to the village of Chiva, and see on either side those of Cheste and Toris.

The change of the temperature is here sensibly felt; and we discover about Chiva the brilliant cultivation of the kingdom of Valencia. The trees are numerous; hedges, for the most part formed of fine aloes, inclose the estates: olive and mulberry trees rapidly succeed one another; fruit-trees are loaded with fruit, and the earth enriches the cultivator with its gifts.

At half a league beyond Chiva these beauties disappear, or at least lose much of their brilliancy; olive and mulberry-trees are scarce; the land is often fallow; and the cultivated part yields nothing but shrivelled wheat: the road is even, but not handsome. At some distance the fields resume their beauty; they are watered with numerous streams, and the most delightful fertility is every where seen.

The villages succeed each other quickly; among others we see that of Torrente, known by its wines and brandies; that of Maniser, where there are manufactories for earthen-ware and crockery. We arrive at Quarte, a very large village, well peopled, and situated in one of the finest and richest parts of the *huerta* of

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Valencia. This place was called by the Romans *Quartum.*

The country becomes more strikingly beautiful, as we approach Valencia, here not more than a league distant. The road is tolerably broad, but very stony. We proceed to Mislata, a village which has the title of Barony, and which contains about 500 inhabitants; it is the rendezvous of tipplers. To the left we leave the entrance of the superb quay, which extends a league along the right bank of the Guadalaviar, by the walls of Valencia; we take the road to the right, and a little afterwards we enter the town by the faubourg of Quarte, and by the gate of the same name.

Road from the Frontiers of Murcia over *Orihuela,* to Valencia, 32 Leagues and a half.

The *Sierra of Orihuela,* (Frontiers of Murcia.)

	LEAGUES.
La Parecia, (a village)	¼
Orihuela, (a town)	¼
Batara, (a village)	2
Elche, (a town)	3
Montfort, (a town)	2 ¼
Elda, (a town)	2 ½
The river Elda,* (without a bridge)	¼
Villena, (a town †)	3 ¾

* We cross and recross it thrice at small distances. Here we enter the kingdom of Murcia.

† This town is in the kingdom of Murcia. Soon after passing it we enter that of Valencia.

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	LEAGUES.
Fuente de la Higuera, (a village *)	4
Valencia, †	13 ½

Leaving the kingdom of Murcia, we continue to wind round the mountain of Orihuela, which is a calcareous rock. We proceed to la Parecia, a small village, situated at the foot of this mountain; and half a league further on we discover the castle of Orihuela, half way up the side of the same mountain, which we go along to the left, having the Heurta to the right; we soon after perceive the steeples of Orihuela: this town, the side of which is first seen, gradually opens to the view, and we arrive there after an hour's travelling from the frontiers of Murcia. On entering, we discover to the right a Franciscan convent, in a delightful situation; to the left we see a large and fine building, which is a range of barracks; we then go into a short but beautiful avenue of trees, which looks over the Huerta, and which leads to the gates of the town.

ORIHUELA is a tolerably large town, agreeably situated at the foot of the mountain of the same name on both banks of the Segura, which

* A league from this village, the road joins that which leads from the gate of Almanza to Valencia.

† The itinerary and description of the road from Fuente de la Higuera to Valencia, may be found with the description of that from the frontiers of the kingdom of Murcia after Almanza to Valencia.

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runs through it, and which, on the confines of a beautiful country, forms the continuation of the Huerta of Murcia.

This town was taken from the Contestani by the Carthaginians, from them by the Romans, and from these by the Goths; it was conquered by the Moors in 715, and was at first part of the kingdom of Cordova; in 1057 it had its own king, whose existence was of short duration; it soon afterwards returned to the kings of Cordova: a fresh revolution rendered it dependent on the new kingdom of Murcia, established in 1236; it remained under the Moors for 550 years. It was taken from them in 1264 by James I. king of Aragon, who peopled it with Christians; and it received, in 1537, the title of city from Alphonso V. In 1648 it was depopulated by the plague; and the overflowing of the Segura, in 1651, destroyed a great part of it.

Orihuela had almost as many names as masters. We are ignorant of that which it bore under the Carthaginians; it was called *Auriola* by the Romans, *Orzuella* by the Goths, *Orguella* by the Moors, and *Orihuela* by the Aragonese and the Spanish.

Extent and Population. This town is narrow, but extends to considerable length, following the foot of the mountain, round which it winds. It is tolerably well built; the streets are ill

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general airy, straight and broad, but not paved.* There are eleven principal ones, tolerably handsome, the broadest of which have on each side convenient foot-pavements. There are many regular edifices, and good looking houses. The town has two bridges over the Segura, seven gates, and five squares. In these squares, which are all large and of regular dimensions, nothing is wanting but handsome buildings. It has no fountains, and the inhabitants drink the water of the Segura. It has a cheerful, open, agreeable air throughout. The population is about 20,000 souls.

Ecclesiastical Administration. Orihuela was formerly of the diocese of Carthaginia and afterwards of Murcia; its principal church was made a collegiate in 1413 by the Anti-Pope Benedict XIII. The Council of Basil, at the request of Alphonso V. king of Aragon, ordained that it should be a cathedral in 1440, and that an episcopal see should be established in it; this establishment, however, did not take place: Pope Eugene IV. united this new chapter, in 1443, to that of the cathedral of Murcia. At length Pope Leo X. in 1564, established a bishop's see here, which has continued ever since, and the diocese of which comprehends a cathedral chapter, which is at Orihuela; a collegiate chapter, which is at Alicante; four vicarages, and fifty-five parishes.

The chapel of the cathedral of Orihuela consists of five dignitaries, seventeen canons, twelve prebendaries, twelve semi-prebendaries, and forty-one beneficed clergymen. There are in this town three parish churches, nine monasteries, three nunneries, one church of Our Lady of Mont-Serrat, a hospital of pity, one for the sick, a foundling hospital, and one tribunal for the cognizance of causes arising in the diocese.

Civil and Military Administration. A criminal judge, an alcalde-major for the administration of justice, a certain

* See (*post*) what is said in speaking of the sand which covers the streets of Valencia.

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number of regidors, half nobles and half citizens, who form the municipality; and a garrison of two squadrons of cavalry or of dragoons.

Public Instruction. Public instruction is much neglected at Orihuela. There is, however, a university there, which was founded in 1556 for the four learned professions; that of medicine was suppressed in the 18th century; theology, jurisprudence, and philosophy are now taught; but the radical vices of the other universities of Spain are found in it, a theology purely scholastic, and a philosophy almost entirely peripatetic, with a syllogistical form, fertile in subtleties and subterfuges: it has none of the establishments proper to accelerate the progress of the sciences. There are also in this town one seminary and two colleges; in one of which there are about three hundred young men; but they also partake of the bad plan of the university, on which they are dependent.

Public Edifices. There is nothing in the public edifices of this town to excite curiosity. The cathedral church is small and obscure; the iron-railing of the principal altar is a master-piece. The parish-church of St. James's has a tolerably fine portal in the Gothic style; that of Our Lady of Mont-Serrat has two stories of architecture of the Corinthian order, each of four columns of green marble. The front of the Dominican convent is very wide, and without ornament: it has two portals that seem lost in the immensity of its front, and which would have more effect if they had any exterior decoration. The front of the church of the Augustines is ornamented by two fine square towers, one on each side, having three stories of architecture; the two first are without ornament; the third has two fine Ionic pilasters on every side; it is surmounted by a fine cornice, which supports urns, placed at equal distances. In the year 1791 they were working on the front of the church of the Saints Justa and Rufina; it is of free-stone, and is ornamented with

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Doric pilasters; it has a portal ornamented with four Corinthian columns of the same stone, supported by pedestals of blue and white marble.

Orihuela is a very gloomy place to live in; there is no society, though the inhabitants are not in want of any of the necessary principles to form very agreeable ones. Through a mistaken principle of devotion they destroyed the playhouse about the middle of the last century. From that time all society was broken up, individuals secluded themselves, each confined himself to his own house, and a gloom pervaded the whole town. In 1791, however, M. Aguada, a private gentleman, gratuitously gave up one of his houses to a person who made a theatre of it at his own expence. It is small, but handsome enough, though without ornament. It is very much frequented from the month of October to the month of April. A taste for plays will insensibly recal the citizens to the pleasures of society. Strangers will visit them the more willingly on account of this town being agreeable for the beauty of its situation, the richness of the neighbouring fields, and also for the suavity of the manners of the inhabitants, who are active and laborious: they are every where industrious in cultivating the lands to a degree not easily surpassed.

This town was the birth-place of Danien Cavallus, an orator of the 16th century; of Anastasio Vivez de Rocamora, bishop of Segorba, who published, in 1674, the Synodal Acts of his Diocese; and of the historians Gaspard Garzia and Francisco Martinez; both lived in the beginning of the 17th century: the latter wrote the history of his country.

There are no inns at Orihuela; there are only posadas; that of the Pisada is the best; it is, however, very middling; but the prices are moderate.

The country about the town is extremely beautiful; it is the continuation of the Huerta of Murcia, the same land, the same soil, the same watering, and under the same climate; but it is better cultivated, it is also infinitely more beautiful.

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and there are more productions and in a greater variety. It forms a succession of gardens in which fruit trees of every kind display their riches, in which the orange and lemon are mixed with the almond and pomegranate trees, in which mulberries multiply in great variety, embellishing the fields and enriching their proprietors; in which pulse and the most savory and delicate herbs grow in abundance; and in which the lands are never at rest, but always producing: whence the proverb *llueva ò ne llueva, trigo en Orihuela;* that is to say, 'rain or no rain, there is wheat in Orihuela.' They raise a prodigious number of silkworms, which furnish the inhabitants with a new source of wealth.

At the beginning of the 18th century Orihuela followed the party of the Archduke Charles of Austria, who disputed the crown of Spain with Philip V.; but it was attacked in October 1076; by Bellinga, bishop of Murcia, who had just saved his episcopal town and preserved it for his king. This prelate seconded by M. de Medinilla, carried the place, gave it up to pillage for twenty-four hours, disarmed the inhabitants, and took away the original title of their privileges.

We leave Orihuela by a fine road, which, for half a league, proceeds along the mountain to the left and the Huerta to the right; it terminates at a cross placed under a dome in the form of a large pavilion, sustained by four columns of white marble. The road then becomes stony, recedes from the Huerta, which we see no more, and approaches the mountain, which it soon after

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leaves and becomes smoother. We see at a distance to the left the continuation of the Sierra d'Orihuela, the Sierra de la Canada to the right, and the Sierra de Morada in front. We insensibly approach this last; but leave it to the left; the prospect at the same time becomes more extensive, the lands are cultivated, and we enter the plain.

The country becomes beautiful; is covered, here and there with trees, which form, in some parts, especially to the left, agreeable skreens. The villages are near one another; we see at first at a little distance to the right, the village of Co, situated at the foot of a small eminence, on which is an old castle of the same name: and soon after, that of La Granja.

Here the road becomes uneven, broken, stony, and often muddy; it is very much incommoded by gnats; it leads to Balara, a small village two leagues from Orihuela, and most of the houses of which have only a ground floor; it has a parish church, under the invocation of St. James. Its architecture is tolerably good.

We continue in the same plain, in which there are a great many thick olive woods, frequently succeeding one another. After travelling two hours and a half, we discover Elche, where we arrive half an hour after. As we approach the town it appears as if surrounded

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with forests of palm-trees; and on the left there is a large handsome square building, which is used as barracks for the troops. We enter the faubourg by a descent, come to a beautiful large bridge, but without any stream under it, at the end of which there is a circular marble fountain, which throws out water by eight pipes; and we enter the town.

Elche is a town of a middling size, situated in a plain almost entirely covered with palms. It was comprised, under the Romans, in the country of the Contestani; it was at that time called Illici, and gave its name to the gulf of Illicitanus; it had the title and rights of a Roman colony. There are in it 2700 houses, and about 15,000 persons, of whom some are noble families, and about 500 families of labourers. There are some tolerably good streets, some showy houses, several spacious squares, but without any decoration, and six fountains; one of which is of marble, and in the form of a tomb; it throws out water by twenty pipes; it is the only one of which the water is drinkable; that of the other fountains is brackish.

They pretend that Elche was formerly an episcopal See; that John, who lived in 517 was the first bishop of it, and Teudegatus who lived in 862 the last. I am ignorant of the grounds of this opinion: it is difficult to reconcile the

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date of 862 with that of the invasion of the Moors in 714: we know that those people allowed of no bishopric in the beginning of their dominion.

This town has three parishes churches, two convents of monks, one of nuns, and one hospital with twenty beds. It is the residence of a vicar general of the bishop of Orihuela. It is governed by an alcalde major, who is charged with the administration of justice, four regidors, and some deputies of the commons. There are no remarkable edifices. The parish church of St. Maria has a marble portal: it is a monstrous assemblage of plain, twisted, and spiral fluted columns. There are some inscriptions in the square of St. Lucia.

There is in this town a soap manufactory, and also several tanneries. It has a great commerce for dates and palms; these are the principal produce of the land, which, to a certain distance, is almost entirely covered with them.

Elche is very gloomy; there is no kind of amusement, no walk, no play, no place of assembling; every one lives alone, and never visits except on indispensable occasions and for etiquette. The two most considerable classes of the inhabitants, the nobles and labourers, devote themselves entirely to agriculture, and never occupy themselves with any other pursuit. The ladies of the nobility visit only among themselves, and that rarely: which greatly contracts the circle of society; the middling class follows this example. They have in consequence a general appearance of gloominess and ennui, which all acknowledge, but do not correct. The inhabitants however are rich, the husbandmen especially; they nevertheless live wretchedly; a man possessed of 100,000 or 150,000 ducats (£11,458 6s. 8d. or £17,187 10s. sterling) lives on barley bread, and the commonest vegetables.

This town justly boasts of having given birth to the famous George Juan, one of the greatest men Spain produced in

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the 18th century; he distinguished himself by his knowledge in navigation, geometry and astronomy, and the works he published on those sciences.

They eat no beef at Elche; in 1799 mutton was sold for 32 quarts, or 9½, a pound of 36 ounces; lamb 33 quarts, or 9¾*d.*; pork 36 quarts, or 10½*d.*; wheaten bread 4½ quarts, or 1½*d.* a pound of 16 ounces, and barley bread 2 quarts, or a little more than a halfpenny.

In the beginning of the 18th century, Elche joined the party of the pretended Charles III. during the war of the succession, and received an English garrison within its walls; but the troops of Philip V. took it at the end of 1706, and made a thousand English prisoners.

By going a little out of our way, in leaving Elche, we meet, four leagues to the right, with Alicant, a town remarkable for the fertility of its soil, and the extent of its commerce.

Alicant. This town is situated between mountains at the entrance of a bay formed by the cape of the Huerta and that of San-Pablo, in the ancient country of the Illicitani. It is defended by a castle situated on the mountain, which was formerly very strong by its position, but which, having been very much damaged in the war of the succession, has never been repaired.

Alicant passed from the Romans to the Goths; it was given up in 552 with the country in which it is situated to the Greeks; it returned

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to the Goths in 624; it was taken from them in 715 by Abdelasis, the son of Musa, general of the Moors; it was taken from these in the 13th century, by Ferdinand II. king of Castile, who united it to the kingdom of Murcia; it was ceded in 1304, to James II. king of Aragon, by Ferdinand the Justicier, and then became a part of the kingdom of Valencia. Faithful to Philip V. this town, in 1706 made an obstinate resistance to the English troops, who besieged it in the name of the Archduke Charles of Austria; but being attacked soon after by superior forces it was reduced and fell into the power of the enemies of its king. The Marquis of Asfelt having laid siege to it for Philip V. in the month of December 1708; the people, ever faithful to their sovereign, rose, and forced the English governor to surrender the place; he retired to the castle and maintained with honour a siege of five months; but was forced to capitulate in June 1709, after a part of the castle, and mountain on which it was situated, had been destroyed by the blowing up of a mine. The family of Pasqual de Pubill was one of the most distinguished by their attachment to their legitimate king.

In this town it was that Mahomed ben Abdelhaman, the Arab, famous for his poetry, was born; he wrote the annals of Spain; and died at

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Tremen, in the year 610 of the hegira, or 1213. This town was also the birth place of Ferdinand de Loazes, a great theologian, and famous lawyer, whose merit placed him in the archipiscopal see of Valencia, in 1567.

Extent and Population. This town is in the figure of a half-moon; the streets are narrow and ill paved; its population is about 17,300 inhabitants.

Clergy. There are four parish churches, one collegiate chapter with three dignitaries, eleven canons, fourteen chaplains, sixteen beneficed clergymen, and eight convents.

Administration. It has a military and civil governor, a king's lieutenant, a major, a king's lieutenant particularly for the castle, an alcalde major for the administration of justice, a municipality composed of eight hereditary regidors, two assessors and two solicitors of the Commons; a post-captain, and a minister and an auditor of the marine.

Instruction. A drawing school has been established here, the expence of which is defrayed by a duty on commerce, with annual prizes for the pupils.

There is a small manufactory where coarse linens, and some of a finer quality, and cotton and thread handkerchiefs are made. It was established by a canon of Alicant in favour of the poor; it supports a master, two servant boys, and twelve orphans, who are taught this branch of industry.

There are also two very useful establishments in this town, one is a free school for poor orphans, and the children of soldiers burdened with a numerous family. It is a kind of military school, in which they are taught to read, write, and cypher, the manual exercise, and every thing necessary for the military service, for which they are intended, and in which the rank of sergeants is reserved for them.

The other is an association of persons of all conditions,

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under the name of the *Brothers of the Poor*, which is composed of ecclesiastics, noblemen, citizens, merchants, artizans, and peasants.

This society nominates its own governors and trustees; they have divided the town into twelve parts; each part is confided to the care of a trustee and three assistants; these inform themselves of the number, situation, wants, and civil and religious conduct of the poor, and they distribute to them weekly the allowance granted them by the governors; this allowance is in money, victuals, medicine, or whatever else they may be in want of. This society likewise provides for the bringing up of some children in common, and directs their education towards the mechanical arts and manufactures. It has no other support than the voluntary contributions of the inhabitants; what they distribute yearly amounts to 64,000 reals (£666 13*s.* 4*d.* sterling). This society has been established only since 1786.

Agriculture. This town is almost surrounded by high, steep, bare calcareous mountains, little susceptible of cultivation; but their valleys, though small, are very fertile; their soil is sandy with beds of marl and clay. The neighbouring extensive and level country, called *la Huerta*, is very beautiful and still more fertile; it has the same productions as the richest part of the kingdom of Valencia; it is irrigated with water carefully collected in a superb bason, which they call *panthano*, and which is situated between two mountains, five leagues from Alicant; it is inclosed with two very thick walls; it resembles a large lake 236 feet in length 132 in breadth, and 124 in depth; an exact and well ordered police superintends the distribution of the water, so that all the landholders may profit equally by it at a stated price, which is moderate enough.

Commerce. This town is the principal entrepot of the commerce of the kingdom of Valencia, Murcia, Aragon, and a part of New Castile. Next to Cadiz and Barcelona it is the

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most commercial town in Spain; it has a bay which is a great resort of Spanish ships; it is good, large, and secure, but has very little depth; eight or nine hundred vessels of different nations, the half of which are Catalans, enter it yearly. In 1791, nine hundred and sixty-one entered, about 600 of which were Spanish, and most of them Catalans. From this harbour are exported aniseed, almonds, brandy, cinnamon, dried-figs, raisins, cochineal, licorice, essence of lemon, pomegranate, bark, salt, saffron, vinegar, wine, wool, and silk from Murcia. It imports linens from France and Switzerland, cloths from France, iron-ware from France and England, and cod-fish from England. The exportation is estimated at 180,000,000 reals, or £1,875,000 sterling.

Inns. There is a good inn at Alicant, and well attended. Though a great trade is carried on in this town, provisions were at a moderate price in 1799: bread sold for 4 quarts, or 1½*d.* the pound of 16 ounces; beef 10 quarts, or about 3*d.*; mutton 16½ quarts, or 4¾*d.*; veal 17 quarts, or 5*d.*; pork 18 quarts, or 5¼*d.*; fresh fish 8 quarts, or 2¼*d.*; and oil 19 quarts, or about 5½*d.*

In leaving Elche, we proceed in the same plain, by a road which runs through forests of palm-trees. The plain then discovers itself to a considerable extent; it presents a smiling country, covered with trees, principally olive, which form, at a distance, agreeable curtains of green foliage. We insensibly approach the mountains; the ground becomes stony, the road jolting, and we travel at intervals over rocks.

In about three-quarters of an hour after we

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leave Elche, we begin to ascend by a hollow, narrow road, often on the bare rock, but the ascent is easy: we soon however come to a deep, narrow defile, overhung by very high marble mountains; in half a league it widens, forming a small cultivated valley, in which there are three small houses, and mulberry, olive, almond, and carob trees; it then closes, and soon after opens again, forming another valley, smaller than the first, partly uncultivated, and partly cultivated.

We now push again into the mountains, where we admire the patient and laborious industry of the Valencian; we here see how he can reap advantage from the most sterile land, from the most ungrateful soil. He cuts the sides of the mountain, he converts them into terraces, which he props with little walls of stones heaped one upon another without cement; and makes them into fields, which he ploughs, and sows, and which, by their produce, repay him for his labour.

We then enter a narrower and deeper defile, in which we continue for five or six minutes; at length, after having, during an hour and a quarter ascended this mountain, which has been justly called *las Pedreras de Elche*, we reach its summit. We then descend by a narrow accli-

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vity on the rock: it is very rough at first; but soon becomes easier; we discover at the same time a pretty large dry dale a good deal cut, but full of olive trees, and which by a narrow path runs into a valley, which we enter after passing over a very stony eminence.

The eye ranges over this valley with pleasure. It is rendered agreeable by its extent, by a careful cultivation, by the multitude of trees in it, and by the villages which present themselves. Axpe is to the left, Monforte in front, and Novelda in the back ground of the landscape. Having entered the plain, we soon afterwards leave, half a league to the left, the small town of Axpe, situated in a hilly country, on the side of the little river Taraffa; it has a population of about 4000 persons. We cross the valley by a road, which would be a handsome one, if it were not muddy; it is surrounded with fields, vine-yards, olive and mulberry-trees. We arrive, three quarters of an hour after, at Monforte, a very small town of about 800 inhabitants, situated almost in the middle of the valley, on a large stream, with a parish church and a Franciscan monastery. In twenty minutes more we see, about three quarters of a mile off, the small town of Novelda, called Nihulla by the Moors, situated on the Taraffa, and having a population of about 5000 souls.

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After passing through forests of olives we come to the extremity of the valley, which we quit after having been an hour and half in it.

We now begin to ascend, and in a quarter of an hour see to the left, on the side of an adjacent mountain from which we are separated by a prolongation of the preceding valley, an old castle, which is said to have been one of the palaces of the Moorish kings.

We soon enter the mountains of Salinetas: we ought here to arm ourselves with patience and courage, for we are entering on a long and dangerous passage. We first pass into a narrow, close, and deep defile, overhung by very high parts of the mountain; we are ten minutes going through it, and we do not travel it without trembling. Another defile succeeds this; it is wider and more uncovered; it is, however equally dangerous on account of its windings, its remoteness from all habitations, and its length: we are nearly three quarters of an hour passing it, during which time we see only three or four labourers' huts, which are not able to afford any succour; it is closed in by very high mountains, all of a red earth with a marble bottom; we see with pleasure, however, that they are cultivated half way up to their summit, by an industry similar to that which we have

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just noticed in speaking of *las Pedreras de Elche.*

On going out of this passage, we look down on a delightful valley. Innumerable trees and vast verdant carpets are singularly contrasted with the naked dry mountains which surround it, whilst the villages that every where appear give it an appearance of life: we enter it over a fine stone bridge of one arch, under which there is a considerable defile. We presently see at a certain distance to the right, the village of Patrel. We gradually discover the whole richness of the valley as we pass along; it is every where cultivated, every where beautiful; fields, vines, gardens and enclosures succeed one another; mulberry, olive, pomegranate, almond, apricot, and many other fruit trees there display their riches and embellish it. After having travelled half an hour we arrive at Elda.

ELDA is a small town with the title of county, situated on the left bank of the small river of the same name, almost at the foot of the mountain, or Sierra de Camara. It was peopled by the Moors, who called it *Idella*, that is to say, *the house of pleasure.*

Extent. The streets are narrow, without pavement, and dirty; two only are worth noticing, and that on account of their length, breadth, and straightness. The houses are small and ill built: there is not one of any appearance. The

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population is about 3000 souls. The house of the *posada*, or inn, looks tolerably; but destitute of every accommodation.

Clergy. It has a parish church of poor architecture, and a Franciscan convent, agreeably situated, out of the town.

In leaving Elda we proceed by the side of the mountain of Camara for a quarter of an hour; we cross the little river of Elda, and recross it three times in short distances; which renders this road dangerous, and even impassible in heavy rains, this river becoming an impetuous torrent. A steep and stony ascent for twenty minutes on the side of the mountain leads to an even but muddy road, and then to a small valley on the heights, almost entirely planted with vines. Cultivated fields full of olive-trees lead to another valley likewise planted with olives.

We here leave the kingdom of Valencia, and enter that of Murcia, which by a singular prolongation, runs a great way within the territories of the former.

We soon see, at a small distance to the left, Sar, a large village built in the form of an amphitheatre on the ridge of a mountain, that terminates in a sugar loaf, on the top of which are the ruins of an ancient castle.

We still ascend; then travel over a plain, the view of which is agreeable: fields, vines and olive trees spread over the surface; and extend

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to the foot of the lofty mountains which enclose it. Here we again ascend; the mountains draw closer towards the right; but a small, narrow valley three quarters of a mile long appears to the left: it is very fine.

The mountains again open, the plain expands, the country becomes richer, the road is fine and level, and we discover in front the castle of Villena, at the distance of a league from us. We see the steeples of the town of that name, which gradually shows itself as we approach it; one side appears rising on the foot of the mountain, and the other extending into the plain; a mountain rises behind it, on which its castle is seen, and a higher mountain still appears farther off, where we discover the hermitages and castle of Salvatierra. We at length arrive at Villena by a beautiful road, but so muddy that it must be very bad in great rains.

VILLENA, which bore the name of Arbacula, under the Romans, is a town of the kingdom of Murcia, having the title of a city, and the chief place of a marquisate of the same name. It is situated in a beautiful rich plain, before, and almost at the foot of the mountain of S. Christobal with a castle which was formerly very strong; it is placed on a height that commands the town. In ancient times it was surrounded by walls, which are now in ruins.

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Extent and Population. It has 14 principal streets, 4 squares, a great many fountains, and a population of about 12,000 souls. There are several promenades, one of which is tolerably handsome and ornamented with fountains. It has a faubourg larger and more modern than the town; forming a semicircle, which takes in a large part of it. In arriving from Elda we cross this faubourg through three fine streets, which are very broad, long, and straight, but the houses of which are unequal, low and ill built.

Clergy and Administration. There are in this town two parish churches, one house for the congregation of the oratory, one monastery, one nunnery, a hospital, twelve chapels or oratories, and an alcalde major for the administration of justice. The front of the Hôtel-de-ville, and that of St. James's church merit attention; the palace of the Marquisses of Villena is likewise shown here.

Here is a distillery for brandy, and a manufactory for soap; a considerable quantity of coarse household linen is also made here.

There is no inn at Villena; they have only *posadas*, which are tolerably good. Beef was sold here in 1799 for 6 quarts, or $1\frac{3}{4}d.$ for a pound of 16 ounces, and mutton for 12 quarts or $3\frac{1}{4}d.$

This was the birth place of Bartolomé de Valverde y Gandia, many of whose writings on theology are extant, but are more voluminous than useful.

There is a salt pit in the neighbourhood of this townwhich furnishes a great deal of salt; it is two leagues in circumference. The fields about Villena are very fine and fertile; they produce corn, wine, oil, and hemp. The cultivation of the lands bespeaks the neighbourhood of the kingdom of Valencia; it is much more attended to than in the kingdom of Murcia, though this town is a part of it.

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We scarcely leave Villena, when we again enter the kingdom of Valencia. We continue through the same plain by a road as muddy as the preceding one. This plain, equally rich near Villena, afterwards contracts and becomes in part uncultivated. To the left is seen, at a league distance, the town of Caudette.

CAUDETTE is a small town situated at the foot, and on the side of the mountain of St. Anne, on which is a castle in ruins, having four dismantled bastions remaining: it has a parish church, two monasteries, one hospital, a palace belonging to the bishop of Orihuela, two alcades, three regidors, and a population of about 6000 inhabitants. It was taken from the Moors in 1240.

The heights which surround this town, and which we see as we go along the road, were the scene of a battle that was fought in 1706 on the day after the battle of Almanza, by a detachment of the combined armies of France and Spain against the confederate troops which supported the party of the Archduke Charles of Austria: five English, five Dutch, and three Portuguese battalions were defeated by the Marquis D'Asfelt, who commanded the Spanish and French troops, and who gained a com-

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plete victory. He attacked and carried the enemy's entrenchments, and defeated and made prisoners the thirteen battalions; this victory consolidated the happy consequences of that which Berwick had gained the day preceding in the fields of Almanza.

A mile and a half from Caudette, we ascend, except in a few places where the road is level, for an hour and three quarters, and arrive at the top of the mountain, from which, by an easy descent, we come in a short time to Fuente de la Higuera, a small town of about 3000 inhabitants. It has a church, which contains some good paintings by Joannes. This town is built on a rock at the foot of a calcareous mountain, and situated at the entrance of a fine valley, which it commands, while it is itself commanded by mountains of calcareous rocks.

This valley seems an uninterrupted succession of fine gardens; the sides of the mountains which enclose it are cultivated and verdant, and form an agreeable termination to it.

At Fuente de la Higuera we enter into the valley, whence we perceive, to the left, the mountains and the *puerto d'Almanza*; proceeding we find ourselves, in about half an hour, in the road leading from Madrid to Valencia, which we follow till we come to the latter town, a

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distance of 13 leagues and a quarter. This road we shall now describe.

The road from the frontiers of the kingdom of Murcia, near Almanza, to Valencia, 13 leagues and 3 quarters *.

	LEAGUES.
Venta del Puerto (of Almanza.)	
Hermita de Santo-Christo	5
Venta de Alcudieta	
Suria, (a village)	¾
Rocla, (a village)	¼
Venta del Rey	
Jucar, (a river and ferry boat)	1½
Alberica, (a town)	1
Masalabes, (a village)	¾
Montarton, (a village)	½
Alcudia, (a town)	¾
The Llombay, (a gulley with no bridge)	¼
Gineta, (a village)	1
The Torre Pioca	1½
Catarocha, (a village)	1½
Masanasa, (a village)	¾
VALENCIA	1

We are scarcely past the puerto d'Almanza and the Venta del Puerto, when we find ourselves in the kingdom of Valencia. Descending, we pass by the little town of Fuenta de la Higuera, leaving it to the right about three quarters of a mile off.

* See the road from Madrid and from Aranjuez to Valencia.

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The road is the same as that from Madrid and Aranjuez; but it is here handsomer, and firmer: it runs almost in a direct line to Valencia, is frequently raised in the form of a causeway, and is full of little bridges thrown over gulleys: it follows the track of the mountains, and the ascents and descents are so well managed that we scarcely perceive them.

This road lies between two great chains of calcareous mountains, which extend almost in a direct line, six leagues on each side; the country between them is a succession of cultivated lands and immense forests of olive and carob trees: they form an agreeable prospect, and the collective view bespeaks at once the activity of the husbandman, and the fertility of the soil. The side on the right is delightful: it is a narrow valley extending to the foot of a chain of mountains, and is both beautiful and rich; the mountains that terminate it are covered with trees and shrubs which afar have the appearance of a verdant moss.

After travelling a league and a half we discover, to the right, at the foot of the mountain, a great square building, with a pavilion above it in the form of an open dome, which proves to be a beautiful country-house. We soon after see, on the same side, the village of Mojente, situated in a bottom, at the foot and a little on

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the slope of a mountain on which stand the ruins of an ancient castle. This was the birth place of Christobal Moreno, a theologian who lived towards the end of the 16th century. In another league we perceive the village of Balia on the ridge of the mountain. Proceeding a league farther we discover, to the left, at a very little distance, the small town of Montesa, built in the form of an amphitheatre on a mountain which stands forward detached from the chain: there we see the ruins of the ancient castle of Montesa, the seat of the military order of that name. Most of the monks perished there by an earthquake which happened on the 23d of May 1748: the rock on which the castle was built, split open and parts of it fell off. A very extraordinary circumstance took place at the time: a crevice had been formed in a rock; a man thinking to save himself sprang into it, but the sides of the rock meeting at the very instant, he was crushed to such a degree, that, on being afterwards taken out, not a vestige could be distinguished of his scull, or of any of the bones of his body. A great part of this castle is still standing, of a long rectangular form, the walls of which are flanked with towers and pierced with loop holes.

In less than another league we pass by a hermitage, called Hermita de Santo Christo, and,

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leaving the village of Alcudietta to the left, arrive at the Venta of the same name. This inn is handsome and the rooms are well distributed, but it is very deficient in provisions, which are charged very high. Three quarters of a mile further we go through the village of Suria, and soon after that of Rocla: at the end of the latter there is a large handsome house, which was built in 1786, by order of the king, for the accommodation of travellers: it is called Venta del Rey, and is a comfortable place. The road is bordered on both sides with mulberry trees.

In three quarters of a mile, the mountains on the right recede, those of the left approach and turn in front, where they appear to present a barrier to stop the traveller; but they have been opened with such skill that we proceed for nearly a league among them on a very fine road, in which the hills are so gentle and so well managed that they are scarcely perceived: at about two-thirds of the way we were delighted to find a fountain with two pipes, at the bottom of which was a large cistern for watering horses.

On arriving at the top, the eye ranges over a valley of considerable extent, full of habitations. Though abounding in trees, it is not so agreeable as the valleys we came through; it has

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none of those verdant carpets which refresh the sight, but a dark and gloomy bottom gives it an air of sadness: this is owing to the nature of the tillage, which is principally for rice. We go through it along a road straight and still handsome, leading to the river Jucar, which we cross in a ferry boat*, leaving the village of Manuel to the right, and those of Sumacarcel and Benejida to the left, besides several others which we could not see, on account of the thickness and multiplicity of the trees.

The Jucar, in its usual state, is no very considerable river, but it swells in rainy weather, frequently overflows its banks, and inundates part of the valley and adjacent plain, covering even the road, though considerably raised. At those times it would be very dangerous to attempt passing it. There are several posts erected at certain distances, to guide passengers during the floods.

Continuing through the valley for a mile, we enter into an immense plain which the eye cannot take in, and which goes all the way to Valencia. It is prodigiously rich, and seems to be a succession of beautiful gardens. It requires the pen of a poet to describe them: the eye runs eagerly from object to object, the

* A bridge was built here in the year 1800.

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senses are deliciously regaled; pleasure, admiration, a sensation almost voluptuous transports you: you conceive yourself to be in one of those abodes of delight created by the poets, where they have placed the seat of bliss. Fields, vineyards, gardens, follow in rapid succession; a variety and multitude of trees embellish and enrich it; immense grassy carpets blend their tints of verdure with those of the ripening corn. Pulse and herbs of all sorts intermix their sweets. Poplars, alders, mulberry, olive, carob, pomegranate, orange, and citron-trees, form forests as agreeable as useful; the villages are numerous and close; the fields are covered with labourers; all is in motion, and alive. In consequence of the climate, the excellence of the soil, the fertility of the land, and the great variety of its productions, the population is numerous.

The Jucar, which runs through this plain, distributes every where its fertilizing waters by numerous canals.

About two miles and a quarter after leaving the valley we come to Alberica, a little town containing about 2000 inhabitants, with a convent of monks, and a parish church, the steeple of which is a square tower. In another mile we pass the village of Masalabes, and a mile and a half further that of Montartan. From

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the last a fine avenue of alders, three quarters of a mile in length, leads to Alcudia, commonly called Alcudia de Carlet. This little town contains about 2000 souls, and has a convent of Franciscans, and a parish church with a handsome steeple. Alcudia was the birth-place of the painter Joseph Vergara, and of the equally distinguished sculpture, Ignacio Vergara, his brother, who worked for the Basilica of the Vatican, and died in 1761, at the age of 48.

Another avenue of alders and poplars of three quarters of a mile brings us to a gulley, called Llombay, where commonly there is little water, which, however, in rainy weather becomes very considerable: there should be a bridge here. Proceeding for a league we come to the village of Gineta, in the middle of which we see an ancient castle surrounded by moats, furnished with battlements, and defended by large round towers. We no sooner leave the village than we have a sight of the sea at a great distance. We now travel through a country completely covered with carobs, and at the end of a league and a half meet with some houses and the Torre Pioca, a little old square tower of free-stone, standing entirely by itself.

We now go through a long avenue of alders, and in three quarters of a mile leave the village of Chilla to the right, at the same time disco-

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vering the city of Valencia presenting a side to us to a considerable extent; but we soon loose sight of it again to see it no more till we arrive at its gates. As we proceed we see to the left four villages at different distances. A league from this we pass by a convent of Grands-Carmes, go through an avenue of alders three quarters of a mile long and come to Catarocha, a large village of a tolerable appearance, which we leave by a short avenue of mulberry-trees, and in three quarters of a mile more arrive at Mesanasa, another large village of about 1200 inhabitants, where there are some good looking houses, and a great number of barracks made of canes and earth, thatched with straw, but large, handsome, white outside, and with every appearance of cleanliness.

We leave Masanasa by a magnificent avenue, a league in length, planted with alders and poplars, which leads to the very gates of Valencia. The greatest beauties are here united: green fields, trees in great variety, handsome, clean barracks, houses rising every where, and villages, if the expression may be allowed, accumulated, form, with the many passengers on the road, and the general and constant moving scenes before our eyes, an interesting and delightful picture. We might imagine ourselves in the garden of Eden, especially when we see

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in the month of December, a time when the trees are every where else stripped of their leaves, smiling fields and trees as green as elsewhere in May. But this beauty prevents the city of Valencia from appearing; it is hidden by the multitude of trees which surround it, and we do not see it till we enter it. At length we arrive there by the suburbs and gate of St. Vincent.

VALENCIA*. The traveller agreeably surprised and prepossessed by the approach to Valencia, will not be disappointed on his arrival in the idea he has formed of the town. A great city presents itself to his view, he is struck with a succession of handsome houses, and surprised at the majestic masses of noble edifices: the variety of the shops elegantly decorated gives him an idea of the luxury prevailing here; the crowd of inhabitants announces a considerable population; he finds every thing in motion, he every where perceives the marks of opulence; he sees that all is lively, smiling and agreeable, that all corresponds with the beauty of the cli-

* The description of Valencia will perhaps appear too long, but this town requires a detailed examination: there are more monuments of the fine arts in it than in any other town in Spain, more beautiful buildings, more varied usages and different customs, more beauties collected in one view, and more difference in manners from the rest of the kingdom. It requires therefore to be shown in all its parts.

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mate; and this union of gratification makes an impression upon him which he never before experienced in any town of Spain.

Valencia, which was the *Valentia Edetanorum* of the Romans, and situated in the country of the Edetani, is at present the capital of a province of the same name, with the title of kingdom. It was well known in the time of the Romans, but the vicinity of Saguntum, for which they had a predilection, prevented its attaining the degree of splendour and celebrity which its situation claimed.

It shared the fate of the rest of Spain; was taken from the Romans by the Goths, and from the Goths by the Moors; Abdalasis, the son of Musa, general of the latter, made himself master of it in 715; it was then subject to the caliphs of the east; it passed in 756 under the dominion of the new Moorish kings of Cordova; it was separated from the kingdom of Cordova, and in 1027 became the capital of a new empire, which bore its name. Rui Diaz de Bivar, better known by the famous name of the Cid, took it from the Moors in 1094, whence it was called Valencia del Cid: the gate by which this warrior entered, and, to which his name is given, is still shown. Though the Cid had conquered it for the king of Castile, yet he, notwithstanding, maintained it and go-

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verned it with entire independence. At his death, which happened in 1099, the famous Ximene, his widow, gave it up to the king of Castile; she still, however, remained in it, and had soon to defend it against the Moors, who besieged it in 1100; this new heroine conducted the defence of the place; she frequently joined in the battle, and obliged the assailants to raise the siege; but in the following year Valencia was obliged to surrender to the generals of the king of Cordova. A new revolution separated it, in 1144, from the kingdom of Cordova, and it became once more the metropolis of a separate kingdom, belonging to the Moors.

James I. surnamed the Conqueror, king of Aragon, desirous of uniting the kingdom of Valencia to his crown, entered it at the head of an army, possessed himself of several places, laid siege to Valencia in the month of May, 1238, and established his camp at Rusafa. The town defended itself for four months; but it was obliged to yield to superior force, and it surrendered on the 28th of September in the same year, and king James made his entry into it on the 9th of October following. This prince peopled it with Catalonians from Gironne, Tortosa, Tarragona, Lerida, and, above all, with a number of French from the southern provinces of France. From that time it became united to the crown of Aragon, and passed with that

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kingdom in the 16th century under the dominion of the kings of Spain.

This town, after having acknowledged Philip V. abandoned that prince's party, and opened its gates to the general of the archduke Charles, who caused himself to be proclaimed Charles III. Some of the nobility, who remained faithful to the king, left it; the greater part of the inhabitants joined the rebels; but after the battle of Almanza, this town, finding itself without the means of resistance, abandoned by the prince for whom it had rebelled, and with the army of Philip the Fifth at its gates, was obliged to implore the clemency of the prince to whom it had been unfaithful. The inhabitants wept, if we may believe the marquis de San Felippe, who wrote a history of the war of the succession, more from rage than grief.* The victorious army appeared before this town on the second of May, 1706, and entered it on the following day. The Valencians were punished for their misconduct by the execution of a great number of the rebels, by the loss of their privileges, the suppression of the states, the abolition of their laws, and by being obliged to adopt and to follow the customs of Castile.

Situation. Valencia is most beautifully and advantageously situated. It is in a plain completely open, and of con-

* Mas eran lacrymas de rabia, que de dolor.

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siderable extent, within half a league of the sea, upon the right bank of the river Turia, or Guadalaviar, which flows at the foot of its walls, separating it from part of its suburbs, and it is surrounded by beautiful, cheerful, and rich fields, intersected with canals, which carry water for their fertilization every where. It is of a round figure, if the circumference of its walls be only considered; but if the whole of its suburbs, which are almost as large as the town, are included, its form is oblong, approaching to an oval.

Circumference and Walls. It was formerly a fortified town, at the time when the art of sieges was still in its infancy; but it has at present no fortifications; it is notwithstanding surrounded with ramparts, whose walls are entire, and in a state of good preservation; they are of common brick-work, rather high, thick, flanked at equal distances with round towers, and without moats. It has a citadel situated near the sea-gate; but it is small, very badly fortified, and likewise without moats; it is of no use, and is not in a state to make any defence; it does not even command the town.

The river Turia, or Guadalaviar, flows at the foot of its walls the whole extent of the eastern side. Its bed is about three hundred feet broad, but the water is generally very low, in consequence of its being let out on all sides to water the fields. It sometimes rises very high, and has often carried away several of its bridges. It is bordered on each side by very beautiful, large, and well-kept terraces, ornamented with foot-pavements of free-stone. These terraces extend along the side of the town beyond the ramparts; they are lined on the opposite side, with tolerably handsome edifices, and only want to be adorned with trees.

Bridges. There are five bridges across the Turia, almost all equally handsome; they are all nearly the same length and breadth, that is to say, 16 feet broad by 270 and 280 feet long. They are built parallel to each other, and at inconsiderable distances, so that we can see them all at the

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same time. The stone bridge is the first towards the north-east: it was first built in 1591, carried away by the river in 1776, and rebuilt in 1786; it has twelve arches, and opens on the side of the town, towards the new gate, and on the other side into the country. The bridge of Serranos comes next; it was built in 1357, carried away by the river, rebuilt, again destroyed, reconstructed in 1486, once more broken down by the river in the 16th century, and built for the last time in 1606: it has ten arches, and opens on the side of the town towards the gate of Serranos, and on the other at the entrance of the faubourg of Murviedro. The third is the bridge of the Trinity, which was built in 1356; it has ten arches, and opens on the side of the town towards the gate of the Trinity, and on the other side into the faubourg of the same name. The fourth is the bridge of the Real, formerly called the bridge of la Xarea, from the name of the gate which is at the end of it; it was of wood, and was broken in by the weight of the people at the entry of Charles I. It was rebuilt in 1599, in the reign of Philip III.; it is of free-stone, and has ten arches and six beautiful seats of stone, three on each side; it is ornamented with two statues of saints, as large as life, supported upon pedestals, and placed in triangular pavilions, which are supported by three Corinthian columns; the whole is of white stone, excepting the columns, which are of blue marble; the execution is indifferent, and the effect not very agreeable. This bridge opens on the side of the town towards the gate of the Real; on the opposite side it joins the square which is before the Real, or the palace inhabited by the captain-general, having on the left the terrace of the college of Saint Pius V. and on the right the entrance of the beautiful promenade of the Alameda. The last bridge is the bridge del Mar, or of the sea; it is upon the same plan and decorated similarly to the preceding: it was built in 1596; it opens on the side of the town, at the entrance of a faubourg which is indiscriminately called by the names of the

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Sea, of the Remèdio, or of the Trinitarians; on the opposite side it joins a road which leads to Grao, having the country on the right, and the entrance of the promenade of the Alameda on the left.

If the bed of this river were full of water, the view of it would be beautiful and majestic; the eye would wander over a considerable extent, a large body of water, the beautiful terraces which border it, the handsome edifices which line its banks, and the five bridges which cross it.

Division. Valencia includes in its circuit four neighbouring villages, Campanur, Patraix, Rusafa, and Benimamet; which, with their lands, are its dependencies; they are called the four quarters of Valencia.

Population. Its population is computed to be 20,000 families, or about 100,000 souls; but the four villages and their dependencies are comprised in the calculation; they may contain nearly 18,000 souls, so that the population of the town of Valencia and its suburbs is about 82,000 inhabitants.

Streets and Extent. The streets of this town are narrow, short, crooked, and intersected by a great number of lanes and alleys; there are many where two carriages cannot pass; but they are widened at short distances, where they form larger spaces, though still very narrow, to which are improperly applied the name of squares, and which would scarcely deserve the name of passable streets if they were longer. These little squares are very useful, from the opportunity which they afford to carriages to turn into them, that they may allow those which they meet to pass; but they are also very dangerous in the night from the facility of attack which they afford to villains.

The streets are not paved; they are covered with sand, which is at first very inconvenient, but it makes a smooth road when it has been pressed by the horses and carriages; yet, when it rains, the wet sand stops the water and forms

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puddles; the streets are then impassable. From time to time this sand is taken to manure the land, and is replaced by fresh. This custom, which is very inconvenient, could not be easily suppressed: the Valencians are generally persuaded that this sand is full of salt particles, which render it of general service in manuring the lands, and that the neighbouring fields owe to it a part of their fertility; this prejudice, which has been vainly opposed, is so inveterate, that it would perhaps raise a riot if the streets of this town were attempted to be paved.

Valencia might be better lighted at night; there are 2,860 lamps against the walls, on both sides, in the form of a zig-zag, and not opposite each other; but a sufficient quantity of oil is never put in them; the lights go out early, and leave us in darkness. This is very dangerous in a town where the houses are high, the streets narrow, crooked, and full of turnings. This inconvenience is the greater as there is no other patrole than the guard of an alcalde de Barrio, composed of fifteen or twenty men, who make a great noise in speaking and marching, carry lights, and are not distributed in different parts at the same time, but go from one to another.

Most of the streets have cavities under them, which pass also under the houses, and through every part of Valencia; they serve as sewers. They are large, well built, and strong; tradition, true or false, declares them to be the work of the Romans.

Private Houses. Valencia is tolerably well built, though among the houses of individuals there is not one to be seen which deserves attention. The houses have in general a tolerably good appearance, and their exterior is handsome. Some can be mentioned which are very handsome and elegant, as that of the Marquis of Jura Real, opposite the convent of the Cordeliers. There is one in the square of Villarasa, that is distinguished by a contrary effect; it is an incongruity of architecture, a ridiculous assemblage of statues,

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colossal paintings without design, taste, or beauty, which hurts the eye, and makes us regret the large sums that the marquis de Dos Aguas has expended in its decoration. Most of the houses have terraces on the tops of them; these might be made very pleasant, and considerably to contribute to the embellishment of the town if they were covered with flowers, shrubs, and small trees, particularly citron and orange-trees. The interior of the houses is generally decorated with earthen-ware tiles, made at Valencia; they are principally used to pave the apartments, and produce an agreeable effect; they are painted with all kinds of subjects, frequently historical; these paintings are covered with a varnish, by which means they are washed without being damaged.

Though this town is close, and the streets are narrow, yet it has an open and pleasant appearance. The cleanliness which reigns in it contributes to this, and makes it particularly pleasing, especially to those who have been passing some time in the Castiles.

Valencia has eight gates, a great number of squares, five faubourgs, and yet but one fountain, which is frequently dry.

Gates. The gates are, first, that of Quarte, which was opened in 1444; it is supported by two towers, and leads to the faubourg of Quarte; it is by this that we enter the town, coming from Madrid by the road of New Castile; secondly, that of San-Vicente, which opens toward the faubourg of the same name; it is by this we arrive from Madrid by the road of la Mancha; thirdly, that of Rosafa, or Rusafa, which opens into the fields; fourthly, that del Mar, or of the Sea, which, having been formerly opened, and afterwards shut, was re-opened in 1764; it is on the same side as the citadel, and leads to the faubourg of the Sea, or of the Trinity quay; fifthly, that of del Real, which was opened in 1599, on the occasion of the entry of Philip III. who came to Valencia to celebrate his marriage with Margaret of Austria; it opens toward the bridge of the same name, which leads to

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the Real; sixthly, that of the Trinity, which is said to have been built in 1536, was afterwards closed up, and re-opened in 1792; it leads to the bridge and faubourg of the same name; seventhly, that of Serranos, opened in 1138, upon the conquest of Valencia by king James; it opens upon the bridge of Serranos which leads to the faubourg of Murviedro; it is by this that we arrive from Catalonia; it is supported by two massive towers, which were begun to be built in 1349, and finished in 1418: 8thly, That of St. Joseph or Newgate, which was opened in 1419. The traveller will perhaps expect here the gate of the Cid, which has been mentioned, and which became famous by the entry of that conqueror; but it made part of the ancient limits and is at present included within the new; it is seen on the side of the temple.

Squares. The public squares at Valencia are not ornamented, and the houses which surround them are very common; yet there are some which ought to be excepted. The two squares before the cathedral, the one before the chapel of *la Virgen de los Desemparados*, the other on the side of the archiepiscopal palace; they are of a considerable extent, and very irregular figure. The plaza del Arzobispo is very near, before the archiepiscopal palace; it is small but of a tolerably regular square and embellished by the front of the house of Olocado. The plaza de las Barcas and that of Villaraza are very near one another; they would rather be handsome streets, if they were longer. The square of the Carmelites, before the convent of that name, is of a very long rectangular form. The plaza de Santo Domingo, situated opposite the citadel, and before the convent of Dominicans, is very large, but very irregular: the Custom-house would be an embellishment to it if the houses in it were better built. The square of the congregation is of a middling size, and adorned by the front of the house of the congregation. The square del Real is situated out of the town, at the end of the bridge del Real, and before the royal palace; it is grand,

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spacious, perfectly square, open and cheerful. It is embellished by the view of the river, the bridge which joins it, the beautiful terrace of the college of San Pio Quinto, which bounds it on the left, the delightful promenade of the Alameda, where it terminates on the right, and the front of the royal palace, which occupies the whole of one side; it is the only pleasant and beautiful square, but it is the most out of the way.

Faubourgs. Valencia has five faubourgs, which, if they were joined, would be of greater extent and have a larger population than the town. 1st. The Faubourg of Quarte beyond the gate of the same name; it is through this that we arrive from Madrid, by the road of New Castile: 2dly. The faubourg of San-Vicente, beyond the gate of the same name; it is through this that we arrive from Madrid by the road of la Mancha: 3dly. The faubourg of the Trinity or del Remedio, or also of the sea, beyond the gate of the sea, between that gate and the bridge of the same name; it is through this that we arrive from Grao: 4thly. The faubourg of the Trinity at the end of the bridge of that name; it is divided by the river Guadalaviar: 5thly. The faubourg of Murviedro, at the end of the bridge of Serranos, also on the other side of the river; we pass through it in coming from Catalonia. All these faubourgs are tolerably handsome, and more open and airy than the town; their streets are broader and more open; that of Murviedro is of the greatest extent, and spreads out into the country.

All that space, extending along the borders and on the other side of the river, from the end of the bridge of Serranos and the entrance of the faubourg of Murviedro, to the entrance of the promenade of the Almeda, in the square and at the entrance of the bridge of the Real, may also be considered as the suburbs of Valencia: it is covered with houses to a considerable extent, and the situation of them is delightful; in front they look upon the river and the terraces

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that run along both its sides, and behind upon beautiful fields.

The fields which surround Valencia may still be considered as the extended suburbs of this town, from the great number of houses and barracks that are built upon them, very near to each other, and which contain a numerous population.

Ecclesiastical Administration. Valencia is the see of an archbishop, which is said to have existed under the gothic kings, and to have been re-established in 1238 by king James I. after the conquest of that town by the Moors; it has a revenue of about 300,000 ducats, £.34,375 sterling. Its diocese includes one cathedral and two collegiate chapters, and 583 parishes. The archbishop has also an assistant bishop, who is bishop in partibus infidelium, and who performs many of his functions.

The cathedral chapter resides at Valencia. It is composed of 7 dignitaries, 24 canons, 10 provosts, and 280 beneficed clergy. The canons enjoy a revenue of about 60,000 reals (£.625).

This town contains 14 parishes, 16 convents of monks, a house of minor clergy, a house of the congregation of the oratory, a convent of monks of the military order of Montesa, an ancient convent of Antonins, suppressed in 1791; a house of the brothers of the charity school, two houses of secular priests, known under the names of the college of the Patriarch and the school of St. Thomas of Villeneuve, the ancient house of professed jesuits; 14 convents of nuns, a great number of particular chapels, those of la Virgen de los Desemparados, of la Casa de la Ensenanza, the oratory of St. Vincent Ferrier, and that of St. Luis Bertrand. There is a tribunal of the inquisition here, composed of two inquisitors, a fiscal, an alguasil-major, and several registers; and a diocesan jurisdiction, composed of an official, a fiscal proctor, and six registers.

The clergy is extremely numerous in this town, there are

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390 secular priests. The convents and the houses of the congregation contain about 1670 monks, and the convents of nuns about 650 persons. The total number of secular and regular clergy is 2610 individuals, out of a population of about 80,000 souls.

In this town there is a bank of charity, (*mont-de-piété*) where money is advanced without interest to the labourers and farmers who are unable to purchase the grain necessary to sow the fields: the funds of it are taken from the revenues of vacant benefices.

Hospitals. There are several hospitals at Valencia, among others a general hospital, a charity-house, and a hospital for the orphans of St. Vincent. Sick persons are received into the first; the poor, either married or widowers and their children, into the second, and they are occupied with different employments; and orphans are received and brought up in the last.

Military Administration. Valencia is the chief place of a military government, and the residence of the captain general of the province, who formerly had the title of viceroy; Valencia and Murcia are included in his military department.

This town has its particular military staff, composed of a king's lieutenant, a major, two aid-majors, a captain of the gates, and an almoner. The citadel has a separate governor. The Real, which is the palace occupied by the captain general, forms a separate government, almost independent of him; it has a governor under the title of *alcade*; this officer has a separate tribunal over which he presides, assisted by an assessor, a fiscal, a register, and an alguasil major.

Here are other military tribunals: 1st. a tribunal of war, composed of the captain general, an auditor of war, a fiscal, a register, and an alguasil major. 2dly. A tribunal of the military order of Montesa, over which the lieutenant-general

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of the order presides, and which is composed of two assessors, a secular fiscal advocate, an ecclesiastical fiscal, a solicitor, a register and two alguasils. 3dly. A tribunal of the military ecclesiastical court, composed of a lieutenant of the vicar general of the armies, two assessors, a fiscal advocate, two solicitors, and a register. 4thly. An auditor of war. 5thly. An auditor and a minister of the navy.

Administration of Justice. Valencia is the seat of a Royal audience, the jurisdiction of which includes the whole province; the captain general commonly presides, and after him the regent; it is divided into three courts, the two first having four judges, who are called auditors, and the last which is the court, a governor and four judges, who are called alcaldes *del crimen.* This tribunal has two fiscals, an alguasil major, a secretary of the *acuerdo,* a lieutenant of the chancellor, and several registers. Justice is administered in the inferior tribunals by a corregidor and two alcalde majors. There are also a great number of tribunals for determining special pleas. It has also a port-captain.

Municipality. The municipality is composed of a corregidor, and in his absence an alcalde major, 24 regidors, one half of whom are taken from among the nobility and the other from among the burgesses, four deputies of the commons, a syndico procurador general, and a syndico personero.

Public Edifices. Perhaps there is not a town in Spain in which there are so many edifices as in Valencia. Several are remarkable, either for the richness of their decoration, which has not always been directed by a correct taste; or for a number of paintings, the greater part of which are by artists born in this town. We shall describe the principal.

El Real. This is the ancient palace of the kings, occupied at present by the captain general of the province; it is out of the town, on the other side of the river, is delightfully situated, in a large beautiful and open square, having the

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bridge del Real before it; a very large beautiful terrace, which borders the river, on the right, the delightful promenade of the Alameda on the left, and looking down upon green and cheerful fields behind; the prospect is magnificent. The building appears rich and graceful; but we must not examine it minutely, for we should find neither beauty nor correctness in the architecture, nor elegance, nor proportion in the decorations. It is a large edifice built about the beginning of the 15th century; there is a long gallery before it, which was afterwards added to it; the front of this is disfigured by the principal body of the edifice, which rises unequally above it behind, and terminates it disagreeably.

The apartments are large, ill distributed, and without ornaments; the gallery is tolerably handsome. In one of the halls of this palace there is a very interesting series of the portraits of all the viceroys and captains-general of the kingdom of Valencia.

College of St. Pio Quinto. This is a house of minor clergy, situated out of the town upon the terrace, on the other side of the river, between the bridge of the Real and that of the Trinity, not far from the palace of the Real. The front of this college, seen at a distance, has a grand effect, and gives us the idea of a magnificent building. It is terminated on both sides by a square tower which rises above the edifice. The portal of the college is in the middle; that of the church at the end of this front, but in a recess; it has two stories of architecture; the first is composed of four fluted Doric pilasters, which support large square urns; the second story has four smaller Ionic pilastres; above them there is a small representation of the Resurrection in bass-relief, a semicircular front on which are placed a cross, and four square urns.

Church of St. Moniac. This church belongs to a convent of Petits-Augustin, situated out of the town at the entrance of the faubourg and street of Murviedro. It has a monstrous

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appearance, like many others in Valencia, from the quantity and deformity of sculptured compartments; it is only remarkable for a miraculous crucifix which is kept in it: it is said that this crucifix, which was intended by the patriarch Ribera, archbishop of Valencia, for the college that he had just founded, would not remain there, but declared that it would be placed in the church of the Petits-Augustins, to which it was carried.

The Convent of the Grands Carmes is situated in the square of that name, *plaza del Carmen*.

The church is handsome and the roof is well pointed; it is ornamented with fluted pilastres of the Corinthian order, and a cornice. The principal altar, which is of a handsome Corinthian architecture, is ornamented with several pictures, amongst others a large one of the transfiguration of the Lord, one of the Holy Virgin, and some other very small ones, by Espinosa; the door of the tabernacle is covered with a half-length picture of our Saviour by Joannez, which is full of expression.

In some of the chapels of this church there are some tolerable paintings; the Conception, St. Francis de Sienna, a picture of the Holy Virgin, St. Joachim and St. Anne, all by Gaspard de la Huerta; St. Martin, and a Flight into Egypt, by Pedro Orrente; a St. Roch, by Orrente; the Holy Virgin de los Desemparados, with a Birth of Jesus Christ below it, by Joseph Vergara; a St. Albert, by Conchillos; a St. Teresa, by Ribalta; a St. André Corsini, by Espinosa; a St. Peter, in the style of Joannez. In the chapel on the side of the sanctuary, there is a marble mausoleum, very little ornamented; it supports a recumbent statue, clothed in the habit of the order of Mont Carmel.

The chapel of the communion deserves particular attention. It is a large long building, ornamented with fluted pilasters of the Corinthian order. The principal altar, which is of wood, gilt, is of a handsome architecture; the pedestals of the

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columns of the first story and the tabernacle are covered with bass-reliefs; the middle of the first story is occupied by a large picture of the Saviour of the World, painted by Ribalta; two doors, which are on each side of the altar, are covered with two pictures of St. Peter and St. Paul. The sculptures are by Gaspard, a monk of the same convent, who died in 1644.

The chapel of our Lady of Mount Carmel, is remarkable for the richness of the ornaments which have been lavished upon it; it forms a large oval, which displays itself with elegance. The walls to a certain height are encrusted with pale rose-coloured marble, streaked with white. It is ornamented with twelve large fluted columns of the Corinthian order, covered with white stucco, with gilt fluting, in the lower part, and gilt capitals. The spaces between the columns are occupied by a door of entrance, handsomely decorated, two side ones, and eight statues as large as life; these are of terra-cotta and are tolerably well executed; ten pieces of bass-relief appear above the statues and side doors. The frieze and the cornice are covered with light ornaments delicately worked, and gilt. A large and beautiful dome rises in the middle; over the vault, which is ornamented with borders and over massive medals, a round lanthorn rises; this is too small, and has eight windows separated by Corinthian columns with gilt capitals. The altar, which, with every thing that belongs to it is of marble of different colours, is of a handsome architecture. A large picture of the Holy Virgin is placed in the middle. A beautiful picture of the discovery of the statue of the Holy Virgin covers the door of the tabernacle. There are some pictures in the sacristy, amongst which there is one attributed to Joannez: it represents St. Joseph in his bed, the Holy Virgin giving him broth; groups and figures in different attitudes, and above the eternal Father with two groups of angels; this is an excellent picture.

This convent has two cloisters; the first is tolerably large,

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square, of Gothic architecure, and opens through four arcades in each front. In one of its angles here is a picture of middling size and tolerably good, the painter of which is unknown, though it appears modern; it is the placing a Jesus Christ in the tomb, with groups of figures: at two other angles there are two chapels; in one of these there are two large pictures, the combat between David and Goliath, and Saul following his son Absolom; in the other. the altar is covered with very ancient paintings upon wood, done with delicacy and expression. The second cloister is larger, and likewise square, it opens upon a garden by eight arches in each front, which are supported by Doric columns; there are eight large pictures at its four angles, which are said to be by Espinosa, and which we are told were good; but from the little care that has been taken of them, it is impossible to distinguish any thing in them.

Convent of St. Sebastian. This is a convent of Minims. It is in the faubourg of Quarte, in a beautiful situation, overlooking a lively country of great extent.

The church is of a simple architecture of the Corinthian order: it would have an air of grandeur, if some heavy ornaments of sculpture, which spoil the appearance of the roof and the arches that sustain it, were taken away. The principal altar has some bad pictures; but, behind the sanctuary in that part called by the Spaniards *tras sacrario*, amends is made by a small picture representing the Lord's Supper, painted by Joannez, with all the delicacy and taste which distinguish the pencil of that artist. Some of the chapels contain paintings which deserve notice, particularly the altar of the Holy Virgin. A small altar of the infant Jesus, called *del nino de la pasion*, has in its base three very small pictures, one of the Holy Virgin, and the other two of the infancy of Jesus. In the chapel of St. Luis there are some by Vergara; but they are the productions of his youth, and by no means correspond with the fame he afterwards acquired.

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The cross-aisle opens on the right, forming a particular chapel under the invocation of St. Francis de Paule. There are two large paintings, in an oval medallion, on the two sides of this chapel; one represents St. Francis de Paule, at the moment when the Pope ordered him to go to France, on the invitation of Louis XI.; the other the arrival of that saint at the court of the French king. On the four pillars there are four other paintings in fresco; they preserve the memory of four miracles of the same saint: above them are the four cardinal virtues, as large as life, also painted in fresco; one of the four, Purity, is said to be the portrait of a Madame Soret, a French lady, whose husband was a merchant at Valencia. These paintings executed in 1744, are by Joseph Llaser. In the middle of the altar is a painting of St. Francis de Paule leaning on his stick; Joannez surpassed himself in this work; the illusion is carried to such a degree that one takes the painting for a statue, and fancies the saint in the act of setting out to walk. The compartments of the base of this altar are ornamented with two excellent paintings by the same artist, representing two miracles of the saint.

This church has another chapel built about the year 1780, under the invocation of the blessed Bono. The altar of this chapel is ornamented with a painting representing the blessed Bono in his coffin, surrounded by groups of sick people imploring his assistance, and spectators, attracted by devotion or curiosity: it is by Salvador Mariano-Maella. This chapel built after the plan of Martinès, unites taste, elegance, and magnificence; it presents a profuseness of marble, and a multitude of gilt objects, without confusion; the different ornaments which decorate it are executed with delicacy. The architecture is in general good.

There are also in this convent some paintings of Conchillos, and Gaspard de la Huerta, and another painted by Cadez,

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and brought from Rome in 1791. It represents the blessed Bono scourging himself under the arch of a staircase.

Parish Church of St. Nicholas. This church is as remarkable for the inelegance of the sculptures with which it is overloaded, as for the beauty of the paintings it contains.

The vault and walls are covered with them: they are in fresco, and represent the most interesting epochs of the life of St. Nicolas de Bari and St. Peter, martyrs, and titulary dignitaries of the church; those in the sanctuary represent the moment of time, when angels are introducing the saints into the abode of glory. At the bottom of the church, above and on the side of the principal door, is a portrait of Pope Calistus III., who had been the minister of it, and allegories relative to the Roman church. All these paintings are by Denis Vidal, Palomino's pupil: we cannot look at them without great interest; but they must be examined separately, for the whole presents a confused mass, which hurts the beauty of the details.

The chief altar, of an ordinary architecture, has a large painting of the two titulary saints, by Vergara.

Two small lateral altars are ornamented with paintings by Juan de Joannez. On the one are, an Annunciation, a Birth of our Lord, an adoration of the Kings, a battle of St. Michael with the Devil, two processions, and a battle between the Israelites and Philistines; on the other, the doctors of the church, the Apostles, some Martyrs, and some Virgins. Two other paintings on each side of the lower part, relate to the Creation of the World; and a third between the two last, represents the formation of Eve during Adam's sleep, in the midst of a beautiful landscape. There is likewise an admirable Last Supper, in which the artist has united the beauty of invention, and a correctness of design, with expression and justness of colouring.

There are also excellent paintings in the vestry, as well

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as on different other altars. That of St. Peter the martyr has a large painting of the martyrdom of that saint, and two small ones, a Birth of our Lord, and a Nativity of St. John the Baptist, all by Espinosa, and worthy the reputation of that painter. In the chapel of Christ is a good painting of the Holy Virgin and the sisters of Lazarus. A small oratory in a recedure, near the door of the chapel of the communion, contains some valuable pieces, particularly a picture of the Virgin watching the infant Jesus asleep, and behind, a St. Anne reading. These paintings, being in a manner buried in the thickness of the wall and in a dark place, escape examination, and afford no gratification to amateurs; they deserve to be placed in a more conspicuous situation.

Church of la Purissima. This is a church of the ancient professed house of the Jesuits, which is now occupied by priests and secular clergy, under the name of the seminary of St. Thomas de Villanueva.

It is a tolerably large building, ornamented without taste and without elegance. The chief altar has a large picture of St. Thomas de Villanueva, by Vergara. The lateral altar on the left side of the cross-aisle has two paintings by Espinosa; a St. Ignacio, to whom the Eternal Father appears, and a Holy Virgin giving fruit to the infant Jesus.

In the chapel of St. Francisco Xavier, there are two large paintings of the miracles of that saint, and several in fresco, representing him in glory.

The chapel of the Conception is also ornamented with two large paintings by Conchillos, which have been spoiled by an attempt to repair them. Each of these paintings is between two statues of white marble, as large as life, which seem to be four kings; above each statue is a tolerable bass-relief. The higher parts are loaded with sculptures in confusion. The absurdity of this chapel, however, is compensated by the beauty of the paintings in fresco of the dome, which represent an Assumption, and a St. Stanislas, offering

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the infant Jesus to the Virgin: they are by the Canon Victoria. A painting of the Conception, with the holy Trinity, in the midst of a group of angels, who place a crown on the head of the Virgin, occupies the middle space of the altar: it is by Joannez, and possesses great beauties.

Lonja. The Lonja is a large oblong building, situated in the square of Mercado, and built in 1482, in the reign of Ferdinand the Catholic. It was originally an exchange or meeting-place for merchants, but afterwards turned into barracks, and is now used for what it was first intended. The tribunal of the consulate hold their meetings in it.

The front, decorated with ornaments in the Gothic style, seems to form two different edifices, one without ornaments, the other with some Gothic ornaments at two-thirds of its height. Above the two columns are placed, in pairs, a series of medallions, containing in bass-relief the busts of kings and queens. This front terminates in lofty battlements in the form of royal crowns.

A few broad steps lead to a large oblong hall of a simple yet noble appearance; it is 80 feet long by 50 broad. The whole of it is in the Gothic style, and of the greatest beauty. In this hall the dealers in silk meet to make their bargains.

An adjacent room, built in the same style and with the same elegance, contains a chapel. It leads to two halls, one of which serves for the tribunal of the consulate, and the other for commercial meetings.

Parish Church of St. Juan del Mercado. It is in the square of the Mercado, opposite the Lonja.

The interior of it is grand and spacious with a flat vault. The frieze and cornice are covered with an absurd and confused multiplicity of ornaments in stucco, coarsely carved and of bad taste: the statues of the twelve sons of Jacob, the heads of the twelve tribes of Israel standing against the pilasters, are still worse.

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These ornaments are a striking contrast to the admirable paintings with which this church is every where enriched: as soon as these attract the attention all else is forogtten in the contemplation of their beauties.

The medallions above the arcades of the chapels contain paintings in fresco, emblematic of the lives of St. John the Baptist, and St. John the Evangelist, titulars of the church.

At the spring of the vault there are paintings, also in fresco, emblematic of the gifts of the Holy Ghost, and above, between the windows, the twelve apostles sitting on clouds.

The whole vault of the nave is likewise painted in fresco; the principal subject is God on his throne surrounded by all the orders of the celestial hierarchy. Among others there is a remarkable one of a St. Vincenzo Ferrier, with wings, in the attitude of taking flight, in allusion to the angel in the Revelations, and several saints of Spain, particularly of the kingdom of Valencia. The other parts are filled with different subjects, several of which are taken from the Revelations. At one end there is a battle of St. Michael and his angels with Lucifer and his followers. These paintings are by Antonio Palomino, who has displayed in them all the skill of an artist with the knowledge of a scholar.

The same pencil and similar beauties are recognised in the sanctuary; Palomino has covered the vault of it with paintings in fresco, of which the principal subject is a Holy Trinity in glory, with groups of angels, patriarchs, and saints.

The master-altar, of gold work, is of indifferent execution; it is ornamented with fifteen little statues by Munos, a sculptor of the 17th century little known. At the sides of the altar there are two good pictures by Palomino.

There are likewise some excellent paintings in the chapels of this church, a St. Francis de Paule, a picture of all the Saints, and a baptism of Christ, all three by Vincent Bru: besides these there are some little pictures, which are ancient

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but excellent, by an unknown painter: the pulpit of this church is also remarkable; it is of white marble, with panels of blue and white marbles, and decorated with bass-reliefs, garlands, vases, cherubim heads, and other ornaments in sculpture tolerably well executed; they are by Ponzanelli.

The chapel of the Communion, where neither stucco nor gilding has been spared, seems divided into three parts. The first is a kind of vestibule, ornamented with three large pictures; the second a kind of cross-aisle with a dome painted in fresco; and the third, which is properly the Sanctuary, has a large picture on each side. The altar is ornamented with two paintings, a Holy Virgin and a Last Supper; the latter is by Esteban Marc: it is much admired by connoisseurs.

Escuelas Pias. This is a house of priests for the propagation of christianity; it was built about the middle of the 18th century under the direction and at the expence of Andrés Mayoral, archbishop of Valencia; it stands in a little square made on the site of houses pulled down, but too small for the size of the edifice, the front of which has two stories of architecture, one Ionic the other Corinthian: it is in a very bad taste.

The church forms a vast and superb rotunda, which, in its whole compass, is composed of three stories of architecture. Although it has a striking and majestic appearance, it seems less adapted to divine worship than to the amusements of a circus or any other worldly establishment.

The chief altar is composed of four green marble columns of the Corinthian order; in the middle there is a large picture of St. Joachim, by Vergara.

There are eight altars placed under the arcades of the first story, which are ornamented with pictures by Vergara, Planes, and Camaron.

Convent of la Piedad The entrance to this convent is by a little vestibule in which there is a large picture by Vergara.

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representing the Holy Virgin amidst clouds and surrounded by groups of angels, seraphim, and heads of cherubim; St. Pedro Nolasco, a pope, a king, and a multitude of monks, nuns, common people and slaves kneeling.

The cloister is square, middle sized, and of a good architecture.

The interior is full of paintings. The wall to the height of five feet is covered with Delf tiles, on which various fanciful subjects are painted; amongst the number of paintings, there are few good: some are the portraits of illustrious men of the order of La Piedad, but most are historical and painted by Paul Pontons. Two little ones deserve notice, one in the style of Ribalta, representing a crucifix with different figures, the other a dead Christ with the Virgin at his feet. The windows are also full of paintings by Vergara, containing the life of St. Pedro Nolasco.

The church is simple and ornamented with several pictures, among which one by Espinosa catches the eye.

In the large chapel of St. Juan de Latran there are five great pictures on subjects relative to the foundation of that chapel: some of these are by Jacobo Donoso, and others by Pontons.

It also contains the monument of Philip of Guimeran, a monk of this house; it is of white marble and well executed.

The church has some other indifferent paintings; a martyrdom of St. Serapio by Sebastian Conca; a large picture by Espinosa.

Convent of the Great Augustins. This is at the entrance of the town, by the gate of St. Vincent.

In front of the church there is a great portico with three large arcades separated by six Doric pilasters; the portal is ornamented with four columns of the same order, and a statue of St. Augustin in a niche.

It is of a tolerable size and fine architecture. It is however

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disfigured by a confused and disgusting mass of coarse carving.

The sanctuary is inclosed by a handsome balustrade, the tables of which are of white marble and the balusters of yellow and white; the chief altar is of a bad taste.

A chapel, dedicated to Nuestra Senora de la Correa, has a square vestibule in front, ornamented with Doric pilastres and two large pictures; over this vestibule is a little dome on four arches, the four corners of which have paintings in fresco. There is nothing remarkable in the altar.

The church contains some good paintings; a St. Joseph, and a St. Luis Bertrand, by Espinosa; a Virgin of Sorrows in the chapel of that name; this is an old picture, but possesses great expression. In the sacristy are the following: a St. Thomas Aquinas, a St. Januarius, at St. Theresa, a St. Anthony, an Annunciation, a Resurrection, an Ascension, a Conception, a Birth of Christ, an Adoration of the Kings, and a Descent of the Holy Ghost; the four first are by the Chevalier Maxime, or at least in his style. The others, which are by Joannez, are excellent; in the last three particularly the greatest beauties are united.

The chapel of Neustra Senora de Gracia, which is in one of the cloisters of the convent, forms an exact cross, two extremities of which terminate in chapels, and at the two other extremities are the doors of entrance. Its dome admits a good light, and the lower part of the vault is covered with paintings in fresco The altar of Nuestra Senora de Gracia, at one of the extremities of the cross, has nothing remarkable. At the altar of the communion there is a large picture of Jesus of Nazareth. On either side of the door of entrance there are two medallions containing the portraits of the kings Henry II. and Ferdinand VI. with inscriptions in honour of those princes. This chapel is built with taste, and decorated with elegance. The paintings are by Vergara, and the sculptures by his brother.

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Convent of San-Francisco. This is a convent of Cordeliers: it is built on the site of the ancient palace of the Moorish kings, which was given to the order of St. Francis, by the king Zeit-Abu-Zeit, when that prince embraced the Christian religion, after the conquest of Valencia, and took the name of Vincent Velvis.

The portico is ornamented with paintings in fresco, by Villa Nueva, a monk of this house.

The church is spacious and of an architecture half Gothic. It contains a removal of the Santa Casa de Loreto, by Espinosa; and a Guardian Angel, by Ribalta. There are pictures by the Canon Victoria in the Sacristy; they are historical subjects with the figures as large as life; one of them represents the Moorish King Zeit-Abu-Zeit giving up his palace to the monks.

This church opens into the chapel of the third order of St. Francis, in the dome of which there are paintings in fresco by Vergara, and on the altar a good picture by Estebal Marc, in which St. Francis is igving the rule of his order to persons of different conditions. Two other contiguous chapels, those of St. Anthony and of the Communion, contain two paintings by La Huerta, representing events in the life of St. Anthony. The latter of these chapels is overloaded with gildings distributed without taste; the sanctuary has an altar rendered monstrous by the multiplicity and ridiculous variety of paintings and gildings; but it has two pleasing pictures by Huerta, representing miracles of the Virgin Mary.

The cloister of this convent is worthy of particular attention.

It is of a long rectangular form, divided in the middle of its length into two parts by a transverse aisle, opening on either side, through arcades, into two gardens full of palm and orange trees: a handsome octagon pavilion stands over a well in the middle of one of the gardens. A second cloister extends over the first, with smaller arcades than those

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below, from which they are separated by Doric pilasters. The whole, collectively, appears pleasing; but on examination the ornaments evince bad taste.

The inner part of the inferior cloister is airy and handsome. Pious inscriptions are placed at intervals within medallions or painted borders. The windows are full of paintings by Villa Nova, representing divers events in the life of St. Francis. A small altar in bad taste, at one of the angles of the cloister, is likewise ornamented with pictures; the subjects are taken from the New Testament, and the natural attitudes of the figures are remarkable: they appear to have been done in the conclusion of the 14th century.

College of the Patriarchs. This college was founded, in 1586, by Juan Ribera, under the name of Corpus Christi; but has always gone by that of the dignity possessed by the founder *.

This is a very large edifice, standing partly in a small square that bears its name and partly in a little street. It has no exterior ornament but two indifferent portals.

The church is 108 feet long and 41 broad in the nave, the cross-aisle is 47: it is low, dark, and badly decorated.

The principal altar is of wood gilt, ornamented with six columns of superb green variegated marble, with gilt capitals. The middle of it is completely covered with a large picture, behind which there is a crucifix as large as life, greatly venerated at Valencia: it is uncovered only once a week, which is done with great solemnity. First the picture is removed, then four curtains which are before the crucifix, and all so slowly, that it is impossible to perceive any motion. While this is doing the *Miserere* is sung, and at the end of that psalm, the crucifix unveiled presents itself to the eyes

* Juan de Ribera, born at Seville, after being professor of Theology in the University of Salamanca, and Bishop of Badajoz, became patriarch of Antioch, captain-general of the kingdom of Valencia, and archbishop of the capital. He died in 1611.

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of the faithful. This altar is in a very bad taste; the variegated columns placed any where else would have a fine effect; but appear ridiculous where they are, as they bear no proportion either to the mass or elevation of the altar.

If there be nothing in this edifice to excite curiosity, it is impossible to look without pleasure at the beautiful paintings in fresco on its walls, roofs, and dome: on the roof of the choir there are groups of the blessed, on that of the nave groups of angels, on the vault of the dome subjects from the Old Testament, with the prophets between the windows; in the cross-aisle the martyrdom of S. Vincent Ferrier preaching, &c.; in the sanctuary the martyrdom of S. Maur, that of St. Andrew, &c. The paintings in the nave and in the vault of the choir are by Bartolomé Matarana.

There are likewise a great many good paintings on canvas: a S. Vincent Ferrier receiving the gift of preaching, by Ribalta; Souls in Purgatory, by Frederic Zucaro; a Guardian Angel, by a painter known only under the name of Vicencio; and a particularly fine picture in the middle of the chief altar-piece: this is a Lord's Supper, by F. Ribalta, in which the figures are represented as large as life, with equal expression and dignity; this picture is generally noticed by connoisseurs.

The paintings have suffered considerably from the smoke of the incense, which is burnt in this church with excessive prodigality; they were so much blackened, that it was found necessary some years ago to clean them; but they lost their colours and expression, and the chief part of their merit; and it is to be feared that nothing will remain to be seen of them. Incense is notwithstanding continued to be burnt with the same profusion.

The sacristy contains several pictures, only one of which deserves attention, and that is a Birth of Christ, by Dominico Greco, which is unfinished.

In the next room there is an Ecce Homo, by an unknown

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painter; and in another room, where the relics are preserved, paintings on the roof in fresco, in the Arabesque style.

The chapel of the Conception, the vault of which is painted in fresco, contains two good pictures, attributed to Ribalta; these are a Dead Christ, and a Christ praying in the Garden of Olives.

The cloister, divided into upper and lower, is decorated with well-proportioned marble columns: the collective appearance is majestic; a fountain in the middle is ornamented with the statue of a woman of white marble. The statue was mutilated; and by a vile attempt to repair the head and hands, it has lost much of its value.

There are four large pictures at the four angles of the lower portico. The following, kept shut up in closets, have merit; an Ascension, a Nativity, a Lord's Supper, a St. John the Baptist, and a St. John the Evangelist.

Custom House. The custom house is a large handsome building, of modern structure, finished in 1760, in the reign of Charles III. and situated in the square of St. Dominico.

This edifice is handsome, well executed, and of a majestic appearance. It is one of the finest in Valencia: it ought to be insulated, that it may be seen to more advantage; but behind and on one side it joins some houses, which deprive it of the grandeur it would have if it stood alone.

Convent del Remedio. It is in the faubourg beyond the sea gate, and belongs to the Trinitarians or Mathurins.

This convent has two lower cloisters and one upper one, full of pictures, among which are some by Gregory Bausa, a Majorcan; the colours having faded, they were spoiled by an attempt to retouch them. They are portraits of the martyrs of the order of the Trinity. There are also four small pictures of the Passion of Christ, which have great expression.

In a little place at the entrance of the choir, there is an

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excellent painting on wood, representing Christ with Magdalene at the foot of the cross; and another of the Virgin holding the infant Jesus in her arms, with St. Bernard and St. Anselme on each side. This picture deserves to be taken care of, but it is spoiling from neglect.

The choir and entrance of the convent likewise contain some good paintings.

There are three monuments of the Moncada family in the church, but only one merits attention, which is that of Juan de Moncada, and his wife the lady of Villaragut. It is of white marble, and well executed: it is a work of the commencement of the sixteenth century.

Convent of St. Domingo. This convent is in the square of the same name, and belongs to the monks of the order of St. Dominic.

It has two distinct fronts, that of the convent and that of the church.

The front of the convent, simple but pleasing, is of brick painted white. The portal leads to a vestibule, supported by several columns, through which we go to the cloister. This is handsome, spacious, and roofed with a lofty vault, supported by a multiplicity of little crossed arches, in the Gothic style, and in fine taste. There are fourteen chapels in two of its sides; one of the other sides is ornamented with two altars. There are a great many paintings here, some of which have real merit. One of these chapels, called El Cabildo, contains an antique monument, said to be that of one of the ancient family of Escala.

In the sacristy there are six good paintings by Ribalta, a St. Ambrosio of Siena, a St. James of Venice, a St. Dominic, a Holy Virgin of the Rosary, a Holy Trinity, and a Holy Family.

From this cloister we go into a gallery, the walls of which, to the height of six feet, are covered with painted tiles made

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at Valencia, representing the events of the lives of S. Vincent Ferrier and of S. Luis Bertrand; the upper part, as well as the vestibule, is ornamented throughout with portraits, as large as life, of the superiors and of the monks of the order of S. Dominic, who had risen to the rank of bishop, cardinal and pope.

The front of the church is beside that of the convent: it has no ornament but that of the portal, composed of two stories of architecture: the first is of the Doric order; the second is an attic ornamented with pilasters, and three statues of saints in niches.

At one end of this front there is a very high square tower, with a terrace at the top surrounded with a ballustrade: from this terrace a second tower rises ornamented with two Doric columns; a third tower rises above the second with columns of the same order, and terminates with a lanthern turret finely executed. This tower is one of the handsomest pieces of architecture in Valencia; it is built with taste, and has an elegant appearance.

The interior of the church is spacious, and without aisles; it is overloaded with massive and useless sculptures, without grace or taste; but in the chapels there are some good pictures by different masters, among others several by Vergara; a Hermit, said to be Espagnolet's; a St. Anne with the Virgin in her arms; and a St. Joachim, an excellent painting by Espinosa; besides some good pictures, attributed to Joannes, in the chapel of St. Joseph, the dome of which is embellished with paintings in fresco, which are not without merit.

The chapel of S. Luis Bertrand is richly decorated with panels and pilastres of white and green marbles, and with pictures representing divers events in the life of S. Luis Bertrand, by Jerom Espinosa. Behind the chief altar, which has nothing remarkable in it, there is a *camarin*, a kind of large oratory, where the body of the saint is kept in a silver shrine: here also are several paintings by Hippolitus Bovira, in which

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the merit of the composition is injured by the bad colouring and confusion of objects. The chapel likewise contains the monuments of two monks of this convent, Juan Mico, and Dominic Anadon Loskis; they are of white marble, with columns of green. The architecture is fine, but the two reliefs in white marble at the bottom, representing the good shepherd, and a Holy Trinity, are of indifferent execution: still the collective appearance is fine and noble.

On each side of the body there are two chapels of such extraordinary size, that they look like two distinct churches: the one, under the invocation of our Lady of the Rosary, is overcharged with gildings, and contains some indifferent pictures; the other, dedicated to S. Vincent Ferrier, is preceded by the little chapel de los Reyes, founded by Alphonso V. king of Aragon, built in the Gothic style, and with striking simplicity; it contains two pictures by El Bosco, a Crowning with Thorns, and a Christ led by Soldiers, and a magnificent tomb erected to the memory of Rodrigo de Mendoza, marquis of Zenete, and Maria de Monseca his wife: it is of white marble, and ornamented with taste.

This secondary chapel leads to that of St. Vincent Ferrier, which occupies half the length, and is but lately built. In this we meet with a luxurious display of marble of every kind, a pleasing collection of good paintings, and a noble and striking magnificence, which do honour to those who directed the work, and merit the attention of connoisseurs.

Temple. This house was built after the earthquake of 1748, which destroyed the castle of Montesa: it was intended to be in future the seat of the military order of that name, and a residence for the monks of it, who now occupy it; it is situated by the ancient gate of the Cid.

The front of the church is simple, but elegant and noble; but is, notwithstanding, disfigured by the position of the two towers, which are placed a little too far back in the interior of the edifice.

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Three gates open into a fine portico, which is as it were divided into three parts by cross arches, and we enter the church by three doors correspondent to those of the gates in the front.

The church is middle sized: it was built on the plan and under the direction of Michael Fernandez, and does him honour. The architecture of it is simple and noble: it is perhaps the handsomest church in Valencia: it has paintings in fresco by Josef Vergara; some pictures by Camaron; a Trinity and an Assumption, by Vergara; a Lord's Supper in the style of Vandyke; and a Carrying of the Cross, very like the Pasmo de Sicilia of Raphael. Two carved medallions are still to be seen, one containing a bust of James II. king of Aragon, founder of the order of Montesa, with this inscription: *Jacobus II. Aragoniæ rex, Montesiæ donator;* the other the bust of Charles III. with these words: *Carolus III. Hisp. rex, a fundamentis erexit, dotavit.*

The chief altar is insulated, and forms a kind of pavilion supported by eight Corinthian columns of greenish marble with gilt capitals, standing before an equal number of red marble pilasters. On each side of the altar there is a statue of an angel, by Josef Puchol. A statue of the Holy Virgin, by Gutierrez, occupies the centre of the pavilion; it is wrought with delicacy, but the marble is not fine.

There are some good pictures in the sacristy, amongst others a crucifix with Saint Jerome and a holy bishop kneeling, as large as life, by Pedro Orente. The treasures of the church are preserved here, and a Pix in a tabernacle of silver made in the gothic style, of rich and delicate workmanship.

The parish church of San Salvador has a crucifix which has acquired the reputation of being miraculous, and which is greatly venerated by the inhabitants of Valencia. There are two pictures here relative to the history of this crucifix, which have much expression; they are by John Conchillos.

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The parish church of Saint Estevan or Saint Stephen. It has no exterior ornament. I sought in vain here for the Doric pilasters with a Holy Virgin over them in a niche, which M. Pons says he saw at one of the doors. This church is of middling size, and is covered with an irregular, confused, and disgusting mass of bad sculpture; we must, however, except that of the great altar, which is tolerably well executed. There are some paintings here, relative to the passion of Jesus Christ, to the life of S. Stephen, and to that of St. Vincent Ferrier, in the style of Joannez; and a fine Last Supper, said to be by Espinosa.

The church of S. Juan del Hospital, belonging to the order of Malta, was built towards the end of the thirteenth century, by the empress Constantia, who had retired to Valencia after the taking of Constantinople by the Turks. That princess chose this for her burying-place, and we still read near the font for holy water, the following inscription: *Aqui yace dona Constanza, Augusta Emperatriz de Grecia.* Valencia seemed destined to afford an asylum to dethroned Greek princesses; Constantia retired to it in the thirteenth century after the loss of her empire; Irene, countess of Lascaris, infanta of Greece, and a relation of James II. king of Aragon, retired to it in the following century after having lost her states: she too was interred in this church. Here are two fine paintings representing the battle of Lepanto, by Joseph Garcia, executed with equal taste and skill; and an excellent picture of Saint Joachim, Saint Anne, and the Holy Virgin in her infancy, by Ribalta; a Christ, with two children weeping, by Julio Capuz, at the commencement of the eighteenth century; it is finely executed.

The church of the Congregation, belonging to the Oratorians. The front, built with bricks on the plan of P. Tosca, a priest of this congregation, in spite of the bad execution of the bas-reliefs of the portal, has a pretty good effect, and is an orna-

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ment to the square where it is situated. The church has only a nave of the Composite order, with a dome that admits a good light, and decorated with fluted pilasters slightly gilt. This edifice has neither grace nor elegance; the ornaments are without taste, and only disfigure the architecture. There are some statues by Ignatio Vergara, three pictures by his brother Joseph Vergara; a Holy Virgin by one of the disciples of Leonardo da Vinci; a S. Joseph, by Espinosa; a St. Francis de Soles, by Gaspard de la Huerta, and some paintings by Ricarte and Vergara.

The church of Saint Tecle. This church belongs to a convent of nuns in the street de la Mar. It has nothing remarkable but the decoration of a grotto, in which it is said S. Vincent suffered martyrdom. This subject is represented in a bass-relief of white marble. At the bottom of the grotto a statue of S. Vincent is to be seen in good sculpture: it was brought from Italy.

Parish church of Saint Catherine. This is situated at the extremity of the square of that name, in a very retired situation, where a door opens that leads behind the sanctuary; the principal door is in a very narrow street. The angle that it forms at the extremity of the square of St. Catherine is flanked by a lofty tower entirely of free-stone, and of a hexagonal figure; it has five stories of architecture, each separated by a projecting plinth; the ornaments are massive, except those of the fifth row, which are wrought with sufficient delicacy, and distributed with taste. In an inscription which we read on the first story, this tower is called sumptuous, and is very much prized in the country.

The church is of Gothic architecture, and had a magnificent appearance, but it has been spoiled by endeavours to improve it with ornaments in stucco of a very bad taste. The vaulted roof is fine, well pointed, and also in the Gothic style.

The aisles, however, have been spared; their ancient form

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and Gothic simplicity have been allowed to remain, and they are consequently handsomer and nobler.

The ancient paintings of the chapels have been taken down and modern ones put up; some pictures of Ribalta's have been destroyed. A Resurrection of the Dead, with two other pictures in the chapel of St. Eloi, are the only ones preserved, and they have been inserted within the wall. It is sufficient to see these to regret the loss of the others; they will be an everlasting monument of the bad taste and ignorance of those who presided at this pretended improvement of the church.

The Hotel of the Deputation, in the street of the Cavalleros, is an irregular building, which has no other merit than that of having been the place where the states of the kingdom were formerly held. The royal audience now hold their sittings there.

The decorations on the ceilings of some of the rooms of this hotel may gratify curiosity: several are wrought with delicacy; and in general, though very ancient, they have preserved their freshness.

The hall where the states assembled particularly deserves observation; it is still entire. On entering it we feel an involuntary respect for the ancient use to which it was put. The paintings in fresco, with which the walls are covered, represent the assembly of the states; the three orders are supposed to be convened, those who compose it are, according to their rank, dressed in clothes of ceremony, and drawn in such a manner, that each individual is easily distinguished. It is the only remaining monument of that precious liberty which the Valencians might still have enjoyed, had they not violated the faith which they owed to their sovereign.

The chapel of the Nuestra Senora de los Desemperados, situated behind the cathedral. Its principal front is placed in a very narrow street, and concealed under the ridiculous mass of a balcony in form of a bridge, which forms the communi-

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cation between this chapel and the cathedral. The lateral front, on the contrary, is towards a square, and decorated rather pleasingly. The dome, which rises above the edifice, forms a sort of crown to this front, and is surmounted by a turret, which terminates it agreeably.

The interior architecture of this chapel is good; its ornaments are distributed with taste: there are paintings in fresco; amongst others, a Holy Trinity on a throne of clouds, with all the orders of the celestial hierarchy. These paintings, finely executed, are by Antonio Palomino. The ostentatious and ill-applied inscription which is placed on the inside of the principal door, might however have been very well omitted: *Non est inventum tale opus in universis regnis.*

The tower of Miqueléte, which is seen on one side of the principal door of the cathedral, is extremely simple, and of a monstrous bulk; its figure is octagonal, and its circumference equal to its elevation. It is terminated by a terrace, and surmounted by a turret extremely small, which forms a ridiculous contrast with its enormous size.

This tower, which is neither handsome nor pleasing, destroys the church, and injures the appearance of its portal. It advances far into an adjacent street, very narrow of itself, and confines the thoroughfare in the most frequented part of the town; it has not even the merit of antiquity, which alone could render so useless a monument respectable.

This critique will probably displease the Valencians, who are so very much attached to this tower that they cannot hear it censured without being out of humour. But their town contains so many valuable objects, that a monument the less can be of little importance.

From the top of this tower we behold the beautiful country with which Valencia is surrounded; but this is not the only place where we can obtain this pleasure, there are several steeples and houses which have towers, terraces, and belvederes; that of count Carlet affords the same prospect.

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The cathedral church. The cathedral, or at least the church which previously stood on the same site, was, it is commonly supposed, a temple of Diana under the Romans, a temple consecrated to Christ under the Goths, a mosque under the Moors, and again a christian temple consecrated to the apostle St. Paul after the conquest of Valencia by the Cid: the Moors having taken this town again, converted it into a mosque; and James the Conqueror, king of Aragon, becoming master of Valencia, re-established the catholic worship, and made this the principal church of the town, with the title of the Virgin. It was enlarged in 1262 by Andrès de Albalud, archbishop of Valencia; its dome was built in 1404 at the expence of the chapter. In fine, pope Alexander VI. again enlarged it at his own expence.

It is a great building without a façade, irregular in every part, and the outside of it has neither beauty, grandeur, nor majesty. Its principal front, situated at the extremity of the street of Saragossa, is a confused assemblage of irregular buildings. It has three doors; the two side ones are in the Gothic style, and open at the two extremities of the cross-aisle: the principal door faces the grand altar. This is ornamented with a portal erected at the commencement of the eighteenth century, on the plans of Corrado Rodulpho, and which, contrary to all the rules of architecture, forms a receding semi-circle. The tower, of which we have spoken, was the cause of this deformity; it confined the architect, and rendered the edifice ridiculous.

The portal has three stories of architecture: the first, of the Corinthian order, is ornamented with statues of saints placed in niches; they are of indifferent execution; a cypher of the Virgin with groups of angels on each side in bass-relief is placed above the door: it is a good piece, by Ignacio Vergara. On the second story, which is also of the Corinthian order, are statues of S. Vincent Ferrier, S. Vincent the martyr, S. Lawrence, and St. Luis Bertrand. The third consists of an As-

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sumption between two medallions in bass-relief, by Rodulpho, well executed. This portal is secured by a semi-circular iron gate rounded outwards on a marble supporter, forming a circular inclosure tolerably agreeable, which compensates in some degree for the recedure of the portal.

The church is of Gothic construction, to which were added, towards the end of the last century, ornaments of the Corinthian order. It has a nave and two aisles, the vaulted roofs of which are supported by square pillars ornamented with fluted pilasters; that of the nave is highest and longest. The vaults of the aisles are very flat and low. A greater degree of elevation would have given more majesty to this temple.

The choir is spacious; it has two rows of stalls separated by Corinthian pillars, and has on the side of the sanctuary a handsome iron gate of gilt bronze.

The side which the Spaniards call Trascora is particularly decorated on the outside. On this there are tablets of alabaster on divers subjects of sacred history, some in bass-relief, and others in demi-relief, several of which are well executed. The sanctuary is of the same height, size, and architecture as the nave.

This church is pleasing to the eye, but the stucco and gildings with which it is decorated destroy the impressive grandeur which ought to characterize a temple of religion: these ornaments, generally very delicate, are much more appropriate to a concert-room than to a church. They are as numerous in the chapels; but there, they have a better effect: to these they give an appearance of elegance, which does in no degree suit the serious architecture of a church.

The chapel of S. Peter, or of the Communion, contains a profusion of ornaments without taste; the paintings in fresco, which are in the dome, are, however, worthy of remark. The attitudes are graceful, and the perspective agreeable, but the colouring is weak. Some other paintings in fresco, relative to

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the life of S. Peter, are on other parts of this chapel; they are by Antonio Palomino. A Jesus Christ giving the Keys to S. Peter, and a Conception at the Altar, by the same painter. Two pictures cover the sides of the chapel, but neither of them approaches to the beauty of a figure of the Saviour, by Joannez, placed on the door of the tabernacle.

There are five other chapels, repaired and ornamented in the modern style, and much alike. They are large, well lighted, surmounted by fine domes, ornamented with stucco, and Corinthian pilasters of the same materials. In the chapel of S. Thomas de Villanueva there is a picture by Romaguera; in that of S. Francisco de Borgia, there are three paintings, one representing the motive which determined that saint to quit the world; another his separation from his family, and a third a miracle which he performed at his death. The first is by Maëlla, the two last by Goya.

The chapel dedicated to S. Sebastian is of a different construction. It contains a painting of the martyrdom of S. Sebastian, a Saviour giving his Benediction, an Annunciation, a Visitation, and a Nativity, all by Pedro Orente, and of an execution which does not belie that painter's reputation. Two tombs of white marble are ornamental to the sides of this chapel; they contain the bodies of Diego de Covarrubias, chancellor of the crown of Aragon, who died in 1607, and that of Maria Diaz, his wife.

Amongst the paintings which ornament the cathedral, we remark above the fonts a Baptism of Jesus in the Jordan, accompanied by angels and seraphim, by Juan Joannez; the heads are given in a superior manner.

The grand altar of this church, constructed in 1498, is all of silver, and divided into compartments containing pictures in relief, also in silver, on various subjects of the life of Jesus Christ and the Virgin. The statue of the Virgin holding her son in her arms is larger than life; this is also silver as well as the angels. The doors of this altar are of wood and co-

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vered with paintings of the school of Leonardo da Vinci, done in 1506, by Paul d'Aregio and Francisco Neapoli; they represent passages of the life of Jesus Christ, and of that of the Virgin: the figures are as large as life. In these we find every thing that can characterise the pencil of the greatest masters, the fire and accuracy of invention, the exactness and correctness of the design, the beauty and just proportions of the colouring, the vivacity of expression, richness of drapery, and a commanding whole in the assemblage of the figures, which occasioned king Philip IV. to say, "if the altar be of silver the doors are of gold."

The treasury of this church contains some precious things. The sacred vessels and all the articles appropriated to divine service are of silver, and most of them of delicate workmanship; we find, besides, the statues in silver of S. Vincent Ferrier, of St. Luis the bishop, of St. Thomas de Villanueva, a grand and superb chalice of agate; but nothing equals the richness of the tabernacle; it is eight feet eight inches high, of silver gilt, and weighs 424 marks; the work is Gothic, and was executed in 1452; it is enriched with diamonds and other precious stones: amongst others, there is a small statue of St. Michael all of diamonds; the pyx is of gold, and weighs sixteen marks.

Antiquities. The antiquities of Valencia consist of Roman inscriptions and fragments of antique statues and pavement, which have been brought here from neighbouring places. They might have been more numerous, if, when the ridge of Serranos was building, the directors had not been barbarians enough to throw into its foundations a great quantity of stones which had inscriptions on them, and other fragments of antiquity.

An obelisk, in free-stone, is raised at a little distance from the town, on the banks of the river. There are two antique stones with inscriptions, and we read on a third the period in which these stones were found.

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The finest remains of antiquity are in two halls of the archiepiscopal palace, near the library: in these there are fragments of stones lately found at Pugel and Puch, heads, arms, trunks, and some statues almost whole. All these fragments are extremely well executed. It is a pity that it should have been thought necessary to mutilate them, in order to conceal their sex; the archbishop D. Francisco Fabian y Fuero, doubtless no amateur of the beautiful antique, was the author of this ridiculous operation, which has disfigured these precious remains.

The second hall contains urns, vases, and sepulchral lamps of earths; they were found in the same places; some are entire, others are only fragments; there is also a cabinet containing upwards of 6000 medals, most of them Roman, and some Greek; there are a few Punic, and some others, but very few, with unknown characters: they are believed, without any certain grounds, to be of the primitive times of Spain; there are also many modern medals; they are almost all of bronze and copper; there are some of silver and gold: these last are few in number.

The pavement of this hall demands particular attention; it is formed of antique pavements, discovered in the month of February 1777, three hundred paces north-east of the town of Puch, between Valencia and Murviedro; some were entire, others were only fragments. They were separated with care, and placed on the floor of this hall, where they are carefully preserved. They are different mosaics, formed by little stones of three or four lines in diameter, curiously enchased. They are distributed into seven squares, in each of which medallions and divers designs have been drawn: their compartments are of blue on a white ground. We observe in one of these squares an imitation of the pavement of Bacchus, discovered at Murviedro, and of which there remained but a very few vestiges; it was copied in a drawing-book which a priest of this town had preserved: it is

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executed with such art and exactness, that no difference can be observed between this modern work and that of the Romans. In another we see a Neptune seated in a car, in one hand holding a whip, and in the other a trident and the reins of the horses by which his car is drawn: these appear to be gallopping.

In the same hall are also seen other pavements, of which only fragments could be preserved. Some serve for borders and ornaments to the preceding pavements. On these are represented a tyger, fishes, birds, houses, flowers, and garlands, well executed. There are particularly five stuck on wood and shut up in a closet; on these are birds, fruits, and flowers, figured in different colours, the execution of which is very curious; they are perhaps the most precious of the whole. Most of these pavements are to be found engraved in my work, entitled, the description of the *Mosaic of Italica.*

A monument, which has never been spoken of, fixed my attention at Valencia; it consists of the armorial bearings of the ancient family of the Cabanillas, now extinct: they are placed over the door of the house of the Count de Casal, near the church of St. Juan del Mercado; the supporters are two young women whom two hands hold suspended by the hair. According to the tradition which has preserved the remembrance of the event that was the origin of these supporters, Francis I. being made a prisoner at the battle of Pavia, passed through Valencia and lodged in this house, where the monarch saw two young ladies whom he desired to dance with; they refused and fled. The father, whose name was Cabanillas, flattered by the honour which Francis I. intended them, ran after them to bring them back; but they again refusing, he took them by the hair, one in each hand, and thus brought them to the king. Another tradition delivers the fact in a contrary way, reporting that Francis I. was dancing with these young ladies, when the

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father dragged them by the hair out of the room in which they were. In the first instance the young ladies must have been extremely wild, and insensible to the gallantry of a sovereign prince; in the second, the father must have been brutal and ungrateful for the honour intended him by one of the first monarchs of the age.

Promenades. Amongst the public walks of Valencia, those of Brio, Mount-Olivet, and particularly Alameda, are distinguished, and are, perhaps, without exception, the most magnificent in Europe. They extend without the city to the east from the bridge del Real to that of the Sea, a space of 1800 feet. They are adorned throughout with stone-seats, and shaded by elm, poplar, plantain, orange, lemon, and a great number of other trees, brought from South America, which here display the same beauties as in their native soil. A beautiful footway of free-stone extends along both sides of the principal walk; and marble seats are placed at short intervals. Here the best company in Valencia assemble. The great alley, which is carefully watered, is appropriated to carriages; the others are for walkers. This promenade, intersected by canals bordered with flowers, is still more embellished by the prospects on each side, and by the number of trees, the tufted and green foliage of which gives new pleasure. A broad and well-kept road runs along the whole extent of this promenade, and forms another walk of a different sort, but not less agreeable. This road is edged on each side with thick masses of pomegranate trees, from amidst which arise, without order, and without symmetry, cypresses, palm-trees, poplars, and other trees. This irregularity resembling nature so nearly, produces a rural and delicious sight. The trees have still their leaves in the month of November, at which season the company walk as late as five o'clock in the evening.

Public Instruction. Education was formerly consigned to the Jesuits; at the time of the expulsion of this society, it was

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transferred to the university of this town; three professors there teach the elements of the Latin grammar and rhetoric; three other professors give lessons in the Greek and Hebrew languages. The fathers of the congregation of christian schools also keep public schools for Latin grammar, humanity, and rhetoric. Two private colleges, independent of the university, receive young people as pensioners, who are likewise instructed: the one is kept by secular priests, the other by priests of the congregation. The academy of St. Charles gives lessons in painting, sculpture, and architecture: there are free schools for drawing; and a free school for girls, under the title of *Casa de la ensenanza.*

Sciences. The establishment of the university of Valencia is due to S. Vincent Ferrier, in 1411. Ferdinand V. confirmed it in 1449; it received a new form by the changes which Charles III. made in it in 1786: its revenues being small, that monarch extended them to 8000 pezos, or 1250*l.* sterling, and has again augmented them to 12,000 pezos, or 1875*l.* sterling, taken from the revenue of the archbishopric of Valencia. This university is unquestionably the first in Spain*. Here are sixty professors who teach theology, philosophy, canon and civil law, the practice and theory of medicine, chemistry, botany, anatomy, astronomy, mechanics, and mathematics. They give lectures from the month of October till the end of May. The library is not considerable; but it contains, besides the collections of Perès Bayer, the best authors in medicine: it is open daily for four hours.

Arts. The arts have been long cultivated at Valencia, particularly painting. This town has produced good artists. The taste of the Valencians for this branch of the fine arts

* This university has produced several celebrated personages: amongst the ancients are Vivez, Gelida, Perès, Perea, Trillas, Marino, and many others; among the moderns Juan Mayans, and Nunez.

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gave rise to the establishment of an academy. Some painters uniting in 1752, under the protection of the municipal body, laid the foundation of it, and they found assistance in the generosity of Andrès Mayoral, then archbishop of Valencia. In 1765 Charles III. granted it a revenue of 30,000 reals, or 312*l.* 10*s.* sterling; in 1768, made it a royal academy with the title of St. Charles, and doubled its revenues: it has professors, who form scholars in painting, sculpture, and architecture; and there are prizes annually distributed to those who distinguish themselves most. There is also a drawing school much frequented, where prizes are also distributed for encouragement.

Valencia had paper manufactories under the Moors in the twelfth century; it was the first town in Spain where printing was introduced; they have a Sallust, and a Latin vocabulary under the title of Comprehensorium, printed in 1475; there are still excellent presses, amongst which we ought to mention that of Benoit Montfort.

Public Libraries. There are two libraries at Valencia, that of the university and that of the archiepiscopal palace. The latter was founded towards the middle of the eighteenth century by the archbishop Mayoral, who gave the greatest part of the books in it. His portrait is in the library. This library occupies a great gallery; it is in two rows, each has six shelves in height. Above the cases there are at intervals portraits of men illustrious in various sciences and literature, placed over those divisions which contain works relative to the subjects for which they were respectively distinguished. There are fifty-two portraits, amongst which are those of several learned men born at Valencia. There are upwards of fifty thousand volumes in the library: theology is the subject of one half. It contains all the Spanish works which have been printed since 1760, and the best foreign works on geography and history. There is a cabinet of Natural History, and a cabinet of coins and medals of little value. This

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library is open six hours a day. The building is handsomer than that of the royal library at Madrid. An ecclesiastic is the librarian.

At Valencia there are likewise libraries sufficiently numerous at the monasteries, and in the houses of individuals. The former are almost wholely formed of ancient books, of which scholastic theology, peripatetic philosophy, and the national historians compose the greatest part. Amongst the latter should be placed a tolerable fine collection of good books which the count de Carlet made in his travels through England, France and Italy: he added some machines of experimental philosophy, a rich collection of the best engravings of every kind, and several excellent copies of ancient and good pictures, which he had made during his residence at Paris, Rome, and London. The Marquis de la Romana has a large collection of the best modern books and some very valuable ancient works.

The library of Don Juan, Baptiste Hermon y Aranda, a canon of the cathedral of Valencia, is very numerous and well chosen.

Learned Men, Litterati, Artists. Valencia has produced many persons who were distinguished for their piety and knowledge in the sciences. The most remarkable are St. Vincent Ferrier, S. Luis Bertrand, S. Francis Borgia, the bishop of Segorba, J. B. Perey, known by his works on ecclesiastical history; the theologians Balthazer Sorio and Benito Oliver, the Jesuit Benito Pereyra, the lawyers Pedro Belluga, called in the fifteenth century the Bartolo of the Valencians; Francisco Jerome de Leon, Christobal Crespi de Voldaura, Francisco Roxas, Gregorio Mayans, and Laurento Mathen; the mathematicians, Jerome Cortez, and Bartolomé Antic, Thomas Vincent Josca, Jerome Munos, an astronomer of the middle of the sixteenth century; Gaspard Torella, who wrote in 1570, on prodigies, food, and drink; Gaspard Triston, of whom we have a book de Clerico Medico, published in 1604, Andres

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Piquer, professor of medicine, and physician to the king of Spain.

There are several other distinguished litterati who were born in this town: the grammarians Pedro Juan Nunez and Luis Vivez, Frederic Furius Seriolanus, who is extolled by de Thou; Andres Strany, known by his commentaries on Pliny, Seneca, and Valerius Maximus, Gaspard Geran, a rhetorician; Francisco Decius, an orator of the sixteenth century; Jerome de Castro, known in the seventeenth by some good plays; Juan Mortorell, whose romance of Tyran le Blanc, has been translated into several languages; several poets, of whom we shall speak at the end of this province, and some painters, amongst others Pedra Orrente, Francisco Ribalta, and Juan Joannez.

Manufactures. The quantity of manufactures is a proof of the industrious character of the Valencians: they are numerous and of different kinds, occupying a multitude of persons. They manufacture reins for horses with the fibres of spart and of aloes; rigging for ships, leather, stuffs, galoons, laces, and gold and silver fringes. In 1790, a Frenchman established a manufactory of pot-ash; another of needles, nails, and yellow brass wire was established nearly at the same time, by Francis Ros. The manufactories of silk are the most considerable: they employ nearly 25,000 persons; they make taffeties, serges, silks, satins, plain damasks striped, printed, of one colour and of mixed colours, full velvets, flowered velvets, plain and of various colours. The plain stuffs are those in which they succeed best. There are also fine damasks made and worked with large flowers. They have brought to great perfection the art of making mohair, in which they imitate the works and designs of France, and vary them according to the fashion. A great many silk stockings are also made, galoons and silk ribands, a great many handkerchiefs, sashes, *redezillas* and other things. This species of industry has been so much increased, that in 1799 there were 423 looms

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more than in 1769. There are 3618 silk looms, which work about 800,000 pounds of silk annually; the handkerchiefs, sashes and other little articles of lace consume 100,000 pounds. These looms are not united in a general establishment; the weavers work on their own account, or for the merchants. These manufactories might have a greater extent and be more flourishing if the process of winding and twisting of the silk were better understood. A manufacturer, Joseph de la Payesa, formed, at a league from Valencia, an establishment to twist silk: the success which it obtained ought to induce him to redouble his efforts to carry this establishment to that point of perfection which it might attain. It is at Valencia that the tiles of earthern ware are made, with which they incrust walls and pave apartments, of which we have already spoken: those tiles are of a clayey earth, which is found in the territories of Quarte near Valencia; they harden the earth long after soaking it in water; the tiles are formed in moulds, and are dried in the sun; they are then beaten with a piece of square wood of the dimensions of which they are wanted. They are then put into the oven where they undergo a slight baking. As soon as they are done they are glazed, and are afterwards painted in water colours with whatever subject is intended to be represented. The tiles are then replaced in the oven so as not to touch one another, and, that the action of the fire may penetrate them all equally: as the colours change by baking, the workmen apply them anew in proportion to the changes that take place; the red alone alters entirely. The varnish with which they are glazed is made with lead, tin, and white sand. These three substances are ground in a mill to powder, which is mixed with water, to form a paste, and baked in the oven; it is again pounded and put into the oven where it crystalises: being once more reduced to powder and diluted with water, it becomes varnish. There are two kinds of it; one is whiter than the other, though the same materials are used, the mode

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of mixing alone makes the difference; the whiter the clearer the tiles. It takes a certain number of tiles to form a picture: they are of different dimensions; the smallest are three inches nine lines, the largest seven inches nine lines. The price varies according to the size of the tile, the beauty of the varnish, and the variety of the drawings: the lowest price is eight pezos, (25s.) a thousand, and the highest 100 pezos or £.15 12s. 6d. There is a considerable demand for them; they are superior both in beauty and strength to those used in Holland.

Commerce. The town of Valencia has long carried on a considerable trade, which formerly extended to Barbary, the Archipelago, Syria and Egypt; but the establishment of the regency of Algiers, and the Barbary Corsairs have been very injurious to it. Its commerce is at present confined to the provinces of Spain, and to some exports to several powers of Europe. It has, however, neither harbour nor road; it ships its merchandise at a poor place on the coast below the village of Grao, of which we shall presently speak. This commerce is not limited to the town, for it includes that of the greater part of the province, but the provincial merchants have their houses there. There are some societies for the security of commerce in the town, several courts for the regulation of it, and consuls and vice-consuls of different nations.

Climate. The temperature of Valencia is mild and agreeable, notwithstanding the east and west winds which frequently prevail there. The winters are scarcely ever cold; the springs are sometimes rainy; the summers are very hot; but the heat is moderated by the moisture of the adjacent countries, and by easterly breezes which cool the air; the autumn is the finest season, it frequently lasts till the end of December; the trees are all that time as green as in spring, and the fields as smiling as elsewhere in May: the sky is continually serene; high winds are uncommon, and rain

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scarcely ever falls. The vicinity of the sea, and the quantity of water spread over the country round Valencia for the purpose of irrigation, render the atmosphere damp; but it is not a searching dampness; it is favourable to delicate people, especially such as are subject to nervous complaints, but the contrary to hypochondriacs, and those who have pulmonary consumptions. It is surprising that the English, who so frequently go for the recovery of their health to distant climates, have never tried that of Valencia.

Provisions. The fruits, vegetables, and grains have not the same relish as in Aragon: this is perhaps owing to the number of canals for irrigation, which, while they fertilize the land, may impart too great a share of aqueous particles to its productions, and attenuate their nutritive principles. These aliments, however, are very good, and of easy digestion: it is probable that the pure and elastic air one breathes here, and particularly the excellent Alicant wine one drinks, contribute to give a spring and a tone to the stomach, for one eats with great appetite at Valencia. Rice is the food most used; the rich have it at their tables every day; it is the principal article of the artizan's diet, and the poor live upon it; consequently a great deal of it must be consumed. The inhabitants are fond of cool beverages, and ice their liquors even in winter. They eat a quantity of sweetmeats, biscuits, and preserves of every kind. They have bad water; there is but one fountain in the town which is often dry, and they are obliged to drink well-water. Vegetables are very cheap; fish is cheaper than any thing else, and is plentiful and good. The other eatables are in general dear, especially poultry. The dearness is owing to an excise which the town has imposed, for out of Valencia the prices fall almost one-half.

The price of provisions at Valencia in 1799. Beef 1*s* 2*d.* a pound, of 36 Valencian ounces, which is equal to 2 pounds 10 ounces avoirdupoise; mutton 10*d.*; veal 15*d.*; pork 16*d.*; rice, though a production of the country, 4*d.* a pound, of 12

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Valencian ounces, or 14 ounces avoirdupoise; middling wine at least 2½*d.* a pint. Bread was not dear in proportion to the price of other provisions; it sold for 4 quarts, about 1½*d.* a pound of 12 Valencian ounces.

Inns. There are at Valencia a good many *Mesones* or houses *de posada*, where only lodgings are provided, but where they will cook any thing that travellers bring with them or send out to purchase. There are three great inns: The Three Kings, The Four Nations, and The Golden Lion, kept by Frenchmen. The last is the best: the house is comfortable, and the meals are served in a cleanly manner. The price at these three Inns is four piecettes or 3*s.* 4*d.* a day, for lodging, a breakfast of chocolate, dinner, and supper; and two piecettes each meal to those who do not lodge there.

Character, Manners, Habits, and Customs. Valencia, take it altogether, is an agreeable town, inhabited by an opulent nobility, a great number of rich merchants, an active and industrious people, and a wealthy clergy; it has playhouses, and other places of resort; a taste for pleasure is manifested every where; the streets are clean, the houses agreeable, and we meet with smiling faces; all is gaiety, pleasures are multiplied and feast succeeds feast: we scarcely believe that we are in Spain on finding ourselves in the midst of an airy, lively people, passionately fond of singing and dancing, of all that can amuse them, and who outwardly appear warm and cordial.

The Valencians are described as light, inconstant, and only sociable for the sake of pleasure, not associating through affection. This is the picture drawn of them throughout Spain, the picture given by their own authors: "The agreeable town "of Valencia," says Gracian, "noble, handsome and gay, "replete with all that is unsubstantial *." Murillo has paint-

* *Agradable mucho la alegre, florida y noble ciudad de Valencia, llena de todo lo que no es substancia.*

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ed the Valencians as "light both in mind and body *." It is even become a proverb among the Spaniards, who say in speaking of Valencia:

La carne es yerva, la yerva agua,
Los hombres mugeres, las mugeres nada:

that is, the meat is grass, the grass water, the men are women, the women nothing. But they have been judged too harshly; the contrast of their manners with that of the rest of Spain, of their lively disposition, ever ready for pleasure, with Spanish gravity and reserve, have been the grounds of this opinion.

It is very true that the Valencians have a great degree of levity, a fickleness of disposition, and a gaiety in their manners; that they are swayed by the love of pleasure; that they are fond of singing dancing, banqueting, and all kinds of feasting; that these are perpetually running in their head, at work or at prayers, abroad or at home, in the strects or in company; the very festivals of the church become with them objects of recreation; but, notwithstanding all this, they can be serious when circumstances require it; they are not the less active in commerce, the less industrious in the arts, the less assiduous in agriculture, or the less profound in the sciences; Valencia can adduce scholars, literary men, artists, and able merchants enough to overturn the imputation of frivolity, which the imposition of appearances only could have given rise to.

The women are still less deserving of reproach, they are mild and amiable, and sometimes show more courage and energy than the men.

On juster grounds are the nobility of Valencia charged with an excessive pride, which the prejudices of an erroneous education keep up. They are, by themselves, divided into

* *Ligeros, no menos de animo, que de cuerpo.*

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three classes*, blue blood, red blood, and yellow blood. Blue blood is confined to families who have been made grandees, and to some other houses thought intitled to it. Red blood comprehends families of great antiquity, and the old titles of Castile and Aragon. Yellow blood comprehends the modern titles of Castile, and families the date of whose nobility extends no farther back than two centuries. This division generates envy in the second class against the first, and in the third against the two others, so that no attachment takes place except among the nobles of the same class.

The tradesman of Valencia loves pleasure and good living; so would the lowest class of people if they had the means of gratification. These appear gentle, but are charged with concealing their hatred: they were formerly accused of making frequent use of the dagger, and it has been even said that there were a great number of professed assassins for hire in Valencia †. One shudders in passing through the streets, particularly those near the Mercado square, at the sight of crosses on the walls with inscriptions containing the names of persons assassinated near the spot. We must, however, do justice to the modern Valencians: they are more civilized; there are no assassins for hire among them; the dagger is no longer used; and murders are much less frequent, though they are still heard of now and then.

The Valencian women are naturally gentle, but the ascendancy they have acquired over the men renders them at times imperious; they know their superiority, and some of them abuse it. The more active and industrious the men of the middle classes are, the more lazy are the women of every class,

* This division, however, is not peculiar to the Valencian nobility; it is common to almost all the Spanish nobility.

† See, in *the Account of a Journey in Spain*, by Madam d'Aulnoy, la Haye, Henry Halderen, 1692, 12mo. vol. 3, page 78, a letter by Madame D'Aulnoy on the Bandoleros of Valencia.

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the more do they fly from every kind of occupation. The women of the lowest class work against their inclination to gain their living; but the moment they can do without working, they give themselves up to sloth, till necessity compels them to work again: those of a higher class never think of work at all, not even of such as belong to the sex, or of reading: this indolence is the fault of their parents, who accustom them to idleness from their infancy.

However, in consequence of the mutability of disposition peculiar to the country they live in, the Valencian women are always in motion; they walk about the streets, go from shop to shop without buying, and frequently into the churches: the festivals, and the variety of appointed times and occasions for prayer afford them excuses for their trips. They have a singular predilection for St. Catherine square, which is a place for the men to meet in; they never go abroad without passing through it, if it be ever so much out of their way. If man were to remain a whole day in the square, he would see three-fourths of the women of Valencia go through it twice or thrice.

The Valencians are among the most superstitious people in Spain: they mix religious works with profane customs, and think by exterior observances, which have nothing to do with the worship due to the Divinity, to obtain pardon for their sins. They have particularly great confidence in the saints, to whom they attribute the power of protecting from accidents and diseases. St. Roch protects against the plague, St. Anthony against fire, St. Barbara against lightning; St. Casalida cures the loss of blood, St. Apollonia the tooth-ach, St. Augusta the dropsy; St. Raymond has the care of pregnant women, St. Lazarus of lying-in women, and St. Nicholas of marriageable girls. Every waggoner carries about him the image of a saint to whom he expresses his gratitude if his journey be fortunate; but should any mishap overtake him on the road, woe be to his protector! he tramples him under foot,

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loads him with abuse, and sends him *al Demonio santa Barbara! a los Diabolos S. Francisco! al inferno nostra senora del Carmen!* There are several other superstitions, but we shall only notice that called the *mal de ojos, fascination:* the Valencian women secure themselves from it by little ivory hands, moles' feet, or scarlet tufts, and likewise tie them about their children's necks.

Though the Valencians, in general, are rich, they do not know how to make life agreeable: each class of nobility, as we have said, live among themselves; they have a great many useless servants. They are pillaged by attorneys and advocates, whom they cannot do without; drained of their money by priests, convents, churches, and saints days, and ruined in their income by the excessive luxury of the women; so that at the end of the year happy is he who is not in debt. Sometimes they give entertainments in which gallantry and magnificence unite; these, however, rarely take place but on two occasions; where a nobleman marries, or when it comes to his turn to take the lieutenancy of the maestranza: in the latter case, tournaments, balls, and refreshments thrice a year create a great expense, but nothing equal to that incurred by the old French lords in the feasts they gave.

The merchants are not surrounded by those *apoderados*, those lawyers and agents who prey upon the nobility: they transact their own business, and of course know better how to turn their wealth to account.

The tradesmen would all be in easy circumstances if they knew how to make a better use of their business; but their gains are squandered in expenses for the table and in gaming; in gifts to monks, convents, chapels; in payments to pious societies, in illumination of altars, and in alms to sturdy beggars, by which a great many persons who would rather live by begging than by honest labour are supported in idleness and vice, and consequently it is impossible to go into the

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streets, particularly in the night, without being assailed by a crowd of those wretches.

Valencia, in spite of its opulence, of the taste of its inhabitants for pleasure, and of their natural affability, is far from being an amusing town. It is difficult to gain admission into private houses; and without great intimacy, no one sees the ladies but from twelve at noon to one o'clock. There are no coffee houses; some out of the way places, called *botellerias*, supply their place, but are not used for sociable meetings. The Valencians seldom give dinners. The nobility meet generally in large and boisterous parties, in which they do not converse but play, an amusement of which the women are passionately fond. In these assemblies strangers are admitted without much difficulty: the party meet because it is necessary, and separate with indifference, going away with minds as vacant as they came. The second rate societies are much less numerous, but are perhaps more amusing: they often make parties to go and dine at Grao, or other adjacent places, and spend the time agreeably enough.

There was formerly a playhouse at Valencia said to have been very handsome. An archbishop of the town through a mistaken zeal, caused it to be demolished. After the death of that prelate, a temporary one was erected, decorated simply but with taste. There are plays in it every night, and the prices of admission are moderate.

The women of every class carry the luxury of dress to the highest pitch: those of the first and second never wear Spanish clothes but when they go out on foot or to church; at home, in visiting, in parties, at balls or plays, in carriages or on the promenade, they dress in the French fashion. Their stuffs are handsome and choice; they are elegantly made up, and arranged with taste: they come from France. In their head-dresses they wear flowers and feathers, and they are very attentive to their shoes and stockings. With all this

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richness of dress, their ear-rings and other trinkets are of false stones: there are very few who wear diamonds.

The women are not more elegant than the men are simple and modest in their dress. The nobility find the uniform of the maestranza very economical, as it exempts them from following the fashions.

The same luxury appears in the carriages. There is a great number of coaches, and many of them very elegant. The physicians have a peculiar kind of carriage of a ridiculous appearance.

Luxury, however, does not extend to the interior of the houses: the furniture is simple; tapestry and carpets are very rare. We see none of those glasses or clocks, none of those diversified pieces of furniture which embellish our apartments; no elegant chimnies, girandoles, chandeliers, bronzes, and china ornaments; the walls are bare, or at most lightly painted with some festoons; the floors are matted; the chairs are straw-bottomed; and their large lustres, which constitute the principal ornaments of their rooms, are of white glass.

The women are tolerably handsome; their persons, which are above the middle size, are slim and light: they have large fine eyes, and a whiter skin than is commonly met with in Spain.

We have already said something of the *serenos* in speaking of the guard of Valencia, we shall here add some particulars relative to their institution. Valencia is the first town in Spain in which they were established, and that was in 1777. An alcalde, named Joachim Van, finding the firework-makers reduced to want by the prohibition of fireworks, conceived the idea of giving them an employment useful to the public without being a burden to the town or the king: he stationed a certain number of them in every quarter. These men have each a lantern and a halberd, they walk through the streets assigned them, call the hour and state of the weather, give

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notice to housekeepers of doors left open, guard against fire, give a light to those who ask it, accompany and light those who want their assistance, and in urgent cases go for doctors, surgeons, midwives, notaries, and confessors: they have no salary, but depend upon the voluntary bounty of the inhabitants for a weekly recompence. There have been much fewer thefts and murders by night since their establishment. They are called serenos, because the sky being generally serene, sereno is their usual call.

A singular custom, founded on a mistaken charity, is observed at the hospital. On Good Friday night every year a splendid supper is provided for the patients at the expense of the archbishop. Persons of every rank and condition go in crowds to the hospital, where they squeeze and push to get at the dishes, and to help the sick with them: as they think that they are doing a good work, to render it still more meritorious, they force the poor patients to gorge themselves with victuals. There is a general contention as to who shall give them most, who shall compel them to eat on in the name of God, and for God, in the name of the Virgin and all the saints, and for the Virgin and all the saints. How can so pernicious a custom be kept up in an enlightened age, and in a civilised town? Several men of sense have protested against this abuse, but their arguments have had no effect.

There are peculiarities in the Valencian festivals, both religious and profane, which may gratify curiosity, and we shall therefore give the particulars of some of them.

The maestranza is a body of the nobility leagued in a corps of chivalry: to be admitted into it, it is necessary to prove a descent of four degrees. There are similar corps at Seville, Granada, and Ronda. Each has its own officers and particular uniform. They have no appointed duties to perform, no service to attend to; yet on urgent occasions their assembling might furnish the sovereign with a corps of well-mounted ca-

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valry. In being acquainted with that of Valencia, we shall be pretty nearly acquainted with the others.

The maestranza is commanded by a lieutenant, with the name of *hermano mayor*, who is usually a prince of the royal family, and elected every year. It has several officers, a fiscal, two assistants, to whom the functions of the ancient judges of the field are assigned, a secretary, treasurer, and two almoners: these are chosen from among the knights, and elected yearly. It keeps in pay a draughtsman, a pricker, two assistant prickers, a horse-breaker, a surgeon, an armourer, two farriers, an alguazil mayor, a kettle-drummer, two trumpets, and eight musicians. The knights exercise themselves in their evolutions at a riding-house appropriated to that purpose. The maestranza is divided into four squadrons, each commanded by a knight called therefore *quadrillero*.

The uniform of the corps is a blue coat faced with red, a red silver-laced waistcoat, and blue breeches: the coat is laced in double rows on the lappels, single on the seams, and with three pieces on the pockets and sleeves. The officers and the subaltern agents wear a plain lace, the musicians narrow laces in lozenges.

It gives three feasts every year, on the birth-days of the king, queen, and the prince, who is at their head. The whole expense falls upon the lieutenant, who invites the nobility of Valencia, the officers of the army, and strangers of distinction who happen to be in the town. These feasts are given in a spacious place, where temporary galleries, handsomely decorated, are erected for the ladies. The inclosure is a long rectangular area, fenced in with a railing breast high; the railing is stuck round with paintings and armorial trophies. A great door opens in the middle, opposite to which, at the top, the portrait of the prince or princess whose birth-day is celebrated appears in a gilt frame under a canopy of crimson velvet, ornamented with gold lace and fringes. A large wooden gallery occupies one of the sides; it is ornamented with six

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pilasters, and covered with hangings interspersed with military trophies, and curtains of yellow taffety. The collective view of the enclosure and its decorations is pleasing.

A military march, the beating of drums, the sound of trumpets, and other instruments, announce the arrival of the maestranza. The corps, however, stop two hundred paces from the ground. The fiscal, and the assistants, or rather judges of the field, (their title in ancient chivalry,) preceded by several subaltern officers, appear on horseback; the gate is opened, they enter, go round the enclosure, reconnoitre it, then go out and return to inform the maestranza that every thing is ready for their reception.

The corps advance and enter, drums beating, trumpets sounding; they form in column, march up the middle to the top, where they divide and file off on both sides; the two files proceed to the bottom where they meet, and, again forming in column, advance towards the portrait: the two judges of the lists take their station at an angle of the enclosure.

The knights now begin their evolutions. On a constant gallop they intermix, separate, form into a close body, and break into small divisions: they sometimes go round the enclosure, sometimes cross it, and form themselves into squares and circles. These various movements are executed with exactness. They afterwards form the line, run at the ring, and at heads which they beat down; they arm themselves with bucklers, and engage in sham fights; they attack and repel, dart their lances, and throw balls made of a spongy earth. This imperfect representation of the ancient tournaments recals the times when our worthies, equally faithful to the laws of honour and of beauty, delighted in consecrating to them their skill and valour.

When the tournament is over, the company repair to the house of the lieutenant of the maestranza. The apartments are handsomely decorated, and lighted up with a great number of wax candles. The ladies, dressed in the French fashion

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with taste and elegance, assemble in the most spacious hall, and the men in the adjacent rooms. When the company are all seated, the servants come in with cups and baskets, presenting chocolate, sweetmeats, ices, and biscuits. After this collation the ball begins. A sideboard is set out in one of the rooms furnished with every refreshment that can be desired. Great order, politeness, and good manners are kept up in these entertaiments: the gentlemen of the maestranza do the honours in an agreeable manner, uniting French civility with Spanish gallantry.

The private entertainments of the Valencian nobility yield neither in pleasantness nor magnificence to those of the maestranza. A stranger present at these assemblies is astonished to find in a provincial town ladies dressed with as much splendour, elegance, and taste, as at the most brilliant courts of Europe.

Customs in respect to Marriages. Marriages at Valencia are attended with an enormous expense, which is the more preposterous, as few of the young women have any fortune. On these occasions Spanish vanity displays an extraordinary magnificence. For some days previous to the ceremony, the gowns, linen, and ornaments of the intended bride, the jewels to be presented to her, and the presents she has received, are all publicly shown: these matters are so carefully arranged, indeed in so studied a manner, that a stranger might mistake the room where the lady's parapharnalia are exhibited for a milliner's or a jeweller's shop. To different companies, as they come in, a female relation enumerates the articles exposed: she tells what places the stuffs came from; she carefully points out what belongs to the bride, what she owes to the tenderness or the vanity of her lover, and what is given to her by her parents, whose generosity is always the greater for their knowing that the public will not be unacquainted with it. The luxury in the wedding feasts, in the balls that follow, and

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in the equipages of every kind with which it is necessary to be provided, is still more considerable.

An opposite practice sometimes prevails among the common people, which brings to mind the golden age when our first parents had nothing more than a hillock of moss or turf for a bed. After the marriage ceremony the bride returns to her father's house, where she remains all the day with her friends and companions. At midnight the bridegroom, accompanied with his relations, goes for her and takes her to the yard belonging to the house, where the nuptial bed has been prepared in an arbour of flowers: in the morning they return to the father's house, when breakfast is prepared for their guests, who soon meet, and the girls present the bride with a cradle made of spart. The day concludes with various diversions.

Festivals of the Saints in the Streets. Images of the Virgin and of several saints are very numerous in the streets of Valencia; on their days the statues are ornamented, the streets where they are situated are decorated, great illuminations take place, music is employed, and the inhabitants in the quarter form processions. The people, and even persons of superior stations, assemble in crowds, pressing and pushing; the greater the crowd the finer the show, and accidents are frequently the consequence.

Processions. The Valencians are very fond of processions, and perhaps there is not a town in all Christendom where there are so many. Some of them present odd things: I will give an account of the most remarkable.

No procession, of however little importance, takes place without being preceded by eight statues of giants of a prodigious height; four of them represent the four quarters of the world, and the other four their husbands; their heads are made of pasteboard, of an enormous size, frizzed and dressed in the fashion; their bodies of wooden frames, dress-

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ed in coats, or robes, and various ornaments, all altered according to the prevailing fashions: men, covered with drapery falling to the ground, carry them at the head of the procession, making them dance, jump, turn and twist about, and make bows. The people, quite enchanted, pay more attention to the gesticulations of these giants, than to the religious ceremony which follows them.

The existence of the giants has been deemed of sufficient importance to require attention as to the means of perpetuating them. There is a considerable foundation in Valencia for their support; they have a house belonging to them, where they are deposited; two benefices have been particularly founded in honour of them, and it is the duty of the ecclesiastics who possess those benefices to take care of them and of their ornaments: particular revenues are assigned for the expences of their toilets.

Procession of Holy Thursday. There are two processions at the same time in the afternoon of Holy Thursday, one following the other. The first is composed only of the nobility; every one attends it in his common clothes: it is simple and decent. The other is ridiculous: we see penitents covered with red sack-cloth, their heads cased in conic, or sugar-loaf cowls, slouched behind, and lengthened before, so as to cover the face. This procession opens with two trumpets, the sound of which are monotonous and discordant; they are followed by twenty-three little flags, on which the instruments of our Lord's passion are painted. The procession is made up of a multitude of men in their usual dress, carrying large white wax tapers; of boys walking in the middle dressed in long violet robes, drawn in about the waist with a cord, with wigs on their heads falling over their faces, crowns of thorns on the wigs, and crosses on their shoulders. Here and there appear penitents in red, flags of the same colour, little stages carried by penitents, on which different representations are exhibited: the first is the Last

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Supper of Christ with the Apostles; it is monstrous from its excessive length, the ridiculousness of the figures, and their grotesque apparel: the second is an *Ecce Homo*, preceded by two men in cuirasses, and with pikes reversed; the third has only three bad statues, as large as life; we are here surprised to find the Virgin Mary wearing a scapulary on the arms of the order of the Trinitarians, in a representation relative to a time when neither scapularies nor Trinitarians were known: after this stage comes a crucifix elevated, followed by the Trinitarian monks: a fourth stage, carrying the Holy Trinity, terminates the procession; the Father eternal here appears in an alb, stole, and cope, as a prelate going to perform divine service. The various representations are accompanied with no ornaments, the figures in them are badly done, and their dresses are ridiculous: the procession, taken altogether, far from edifying, provokes laughter, or at least excites pity.*

Procession of Good Friday. There are five different processions set out at the same time, and follow one after the other in the afternoon of Good Friday: they are much the same as those of the day before; the nobility take their part in them. One of the five, and the most numerous comes from the village of Rusaffa; it is composed of labourers, most of whom are covered with blue mantles. The trumpets, the red and violet flags, the children clad in red carrying crosses, the stages with their representations, are still more numerous. Children are seen as Veronicas, that is, as images of our Saviour, and likewise dressed as nuns, representing Magdalenes, penitents no doubt, in long gowns made of spart;

* They are not fortunate at Valencia in the choice of costume for the saints. In a street leading from the square of la Yerva to the Corn Magazine, near the corner of the street of the Salvador, there is a picture of St. Anthony of Padua, in which the saint, who is dressed in the habit of a Cordelier, has on his head a cocked hat, gold-laced, with a fine white feather stuck in it.

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a Christ disgustingly naked, lying on a red bed; tambourins dressed in black, and flageolets in black likewise, accompany Christ to the tomb; idiots or crazy people from the hospital, in large yellow and blue coats, with handkerchiefs round their necks and sticks in their hands, which they hold with a towel; a garden of olives surrounded with an ozier treillis, and other things equally ridiculous.

Procession of Corpus Christi. The procession of the Corpus Christi is preceded by very singular customs.

On the eve of it, masqueraders run up and down the streets to the noise of tambourins and sound of trumpets and Valencian hautboys, called *dulzaynas* *, to announce the solemnity of the coming day. At the same time they act in the streets the massacre of the infants; a man in the dress of a woman, and mounted upon an ass represents the Virgin Mary; he holds in his arms an infant, which is meant for the infant Jesus; a man, clad as Saint Joseph, leads the ass by the halter; an ox and a horse follow them, and thus they go through the streets in imitation of the flight into Egypt. Men in the Jewish costume run about like furies, with knives and cutlasses, and sabres, as if looking for them, and going to put all the male infants to death; they stop those whom they meet, menace them, and put their knives against their throats; they confound the girls with them, and by way of attention put their knives against their bosoms also.

On the day of the festival, the procession is prepared with great bustle. It is preceded by six large carts, each drawn by six mules covered with ribbons. Each cart has a wooden stage which completely conceals it, and which is called *rocas*. On the first are represented the creation of the world; Adam, made out of the earth; Eve coming from the side of Adam, the serpent seducing Eve; Eve seducing her husband, both eating the apple; the exterminating angel, with a flaming

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sword in his hand, driving them out of paradise, the eternal Father lecturing Adam, and declaring to the disobedient couple the punishment of their crime, &c. &c. All this is performed in reality by persons clothed in different costumes, who only appear in their turn, when it is time to show themselves on the stage, and who gravely recite verses in the Italian language relative to their parts. The other stages are covered with men and women dressed in different costumes, who perform several dances. These representations are accompanied throughout by music, and the *dulzaynas*, or Valencian hautboys are not wanting.

The procession follows. It is composed of the several objects which will be mentioned in the description of the festival of Saint Vincent; *dulzaynas*, tambourins, standards and their balancers, children as shepherds, and sailors with their *tambours de basque*, dancing and making gambols; grown up persons dressed in white, likewise dancing to the sound of their castanets, Moorish kings bearing banners; white men in red mantles throwing canes; giants and giantesses with their pages.

In every place where the procession stops, four children dressed in an extraordinary manner, which does not resemble any known costume, dance upon a large table before the host, playing with castanets.

Festival of St. Joseph. Every year on the 18th of March, the eve of the festival of St. Joseph, the upholsterers and carpenters represent scenes in the streets before the doors of their shops, perfectly theatrical; these are figures as large as life, dressed in clothes appropriate to the characters they are intended to represent. They consist of bodies of very light wood; their face is formed by a mask; their clothes, their head-dress and their apparel are made of paper, and are often very well done. These figures are raised upon a large wooden pile, which is not seen, and which is surrounded breast

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high by a thick bundle of faggots curiously arranged, that presents something of the form of a small theatre.

A hundred and fifty of these representations are frequently seen in one year, and many of them are very handsome; amongst them are a Bacchus astride upon a barrel, a family assembled to kill a hog, a Spanish gentleman and lady dancing the bolero to the sound of a guitar which is played by another figure, a giant dressed in the Dutch costume, who makes a bear dance, while another figure beats the drum; on one side are seen figures supporting each other, each performing different tricks, yet all joining to assist in a greater one, performed by a figure raised entirely above them.

At the close of the evening, the faggots are set on fire; in an instant the scene disappears in the middle of flames, and is reduced to ashes. These representations are called *fallas de Saint Joseph.*

The people crowd; persons of a higher condition take the dress of the people and mix with them; they run together from all quarters, and the most important affairs are forgotten.

In the afternoon these representations are followed by multitudes; every one wishing to see them at his ease. A stranger has no occasion for a guide; he has only to follow the crowd, and he may be sure of seeing every thing. When night arrives, each person takes his stand near the representation which he thinks the most interesting, to have the pleasure of seeing it reduced to ashes. This is the most critical moment, the night favours licentiousness and adventures; pick-pockets ply their craft in safety; lovers keep their appointments; they seek and find: this night is generally fertile in adventures. In the parties which are afterwards formed, nothing is talked of but the *fallas*; every other subject would seem insipid; every one praises that which struck

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him the most; the eulogiums are inexhaustible; on the following day they are thought of no more.

This custom might be productive of great inconveniences, besides those which always accompany nocturnal festivals. The streets of Valencia are generally narrow; and those wooden piles are built in the narrowest as well as the broadest streets; the flames rising very high, and the sparks flying above the tops of the houses, these might easily be set on fire.

Festival of St. Vincent Ferrier. This saint, who was born at Valencia, is the patron of the town; his festival is celebrated on *Quasimodo* Monday; or the Monday after Easter Monday.

The baptism of this saint is represented in the church of St. Stephen. A theatre is raised, upon which are placed twenty statues or puppets as large as life, which represent the priest and clerk, two ancient wardens of Valencia, now called regidors, who are supposed to have been the god-fathers of the child; one of them holding the new born infant in his arms, the godmother of the child, the mid-wife, the viceroy of the kingdom of Valencia, his wife, ten ladies, as if invited to the baptism; a negro and a negress, servants of the viceroy. The priest and the clerk are clad in sacerdotal habits, the two wardens in grand robes of crimson damask; the god-mother, and the midwife, are dressed in black, like modern Spaniards; the viceroy has a blue coat in the French fashion laced with silver; the ladies are likewise dressed in the French fashion; their gowns, their head-dresses, their trimmings are changed every year; they are made according to the prevailing fashion; ribbons, feathers, flowers, bracelets, earrings, and watch-chains, are not spared. This scene is thus exposed for three days to the eager curiosity of the people, who flock in crowds to see it. It is useless to draw a picture of the indecencies committed in the church.

At the same time a great number of altars are built, some

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large, some small, more or less ornamented, in the different streets, in the shops, and at the entrances of the houses. Each of these altars is surrounded by a company of musicians, who play at intervals on their instruments during the continuance of the festival. There are three distinguished altars, where the scene becomes more interesting, and to which the crowd more eagerly run, that of the square del Mercado, that of the street Bolseria, and that of the street del Mar: the last is always the handsomest, the most followed, and most costly; it is changed every year according to the fancy of him who pays for the festival; this is one of the inhabitants of the street del Mar who bears all the expences: each of them takes his turn. We will now describe this festival as it was celebrated some years ago.

The altar of the street del Mar was built of wood, and covered with printed linen; it was raised higher than the houses against which it stood. It had two stories of architecture, the first was composed of six large Doric columns, with the statues of Hope and Charity, and four large vases of flowers placed upon the cornice; the second was filled with borders and several other ornaments, two groups of angels and two pictures of Saints, of the order of St. Dominic. An almost triangular frontispiece was raised above the second story, which was filled by a picture in medallions representing a miracle of St. Vincent Ferrier, and surmounted by the arms of the town of Valencia. A large niche, the arch of which was ornamented with garlands of flowers, was placed in the middle of the second story, it contained a statue of St. Vincent, surrounded by a glory, and above were groups of cherubim. A sea, the waves of which were in motion, occupied the bottom of the altar, and ships appeared on it in full sail. This altar was placed upon a kind of theatre, raised about five feet; it was lighted by two hundred candles of white wax. The street was covered with canvas, which prevented the day light from entering it; the

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neighbouring houses were hung with tapestry, and the frame of their balconies and their windows were decorated with carpets of crimson damask; two galleries raised on the two sides contained two bands of musicians. The whole of the street and of its decorations formed an agreeable appearance; it would have been dignified, had it not been degraded by a mixture of theatrical machines; but it is absolutely necessary to represent annually the miracles of the saint and to represent them in a striking manner to the comprehension of the multitude.

It was the same in the Bolseria and the Mercado; the altars were there also placed upon theatres and accompanied by theatrical machines.

The miracle which was chosen for the altar of the street del Mar, was one which is supposed to have been performed by the Saint at Barcelona, at a time when that town was absolutely in want of bread; it is said that the saint preaching on the sea-shore, gave his blessing to the watery element, and immediately, ships loaded with corn arrived in the harbour. To produce this effect, the saint was placed upon a chair on the stage, before the altar, preaching, some figures were introduced to form his audience, and a sea appeared in motion. The miracle of the street of the Bolseria was the same: the chair, the saint preaching, the audience, the sea were also there, to which were added two flour-mills. The miracle of the square del Mercado was of another kind; it related to a repast given to the saint, for which a husband having desired his wife to bring the best that she had in the house, she had killed and prepared her own children; the table was placed upon the stage, and had on it a cloth, napkins, bread, wine, and a stewpan.

The festival was announced on the Saturday of the feast of the Passover, at noon, by ringing all the bells in the town. At the same instant four drums, eight tambourins, and twelve

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dulzaynas were carried up and down the street del Mar from one end to the other.

At that instant the festival began. Persons playing drums, tambourins, and *dulzaynas*, divided and distributed themselves in different parts of the same street; they never ceased beating and playing for three days, except at the time when they met to go up and down the street together, which they did very frequently in the course of the day.

On the following night there was a general illumination in the town; all the windows of the first floor were ornamented with large flambeaux of wood, in imitation of flambeaux of white wax, with small lamps at the end of them. This method appears to be a very good one, the flambeaux always remained at the same height, and produced magnificent streams of light. This illumination was repeated on the nights of Sunday and Monday.

On the Sunday morning, the representations of the miracles began at the three altars.

In the street del Mar, the saint, in the chair where he was supposed to be preaching, made some of the gestures of a preacher, and at last gave his benediction to the sea; the waves were then put in motion, the billows were agitated, and tossed about; ships, without sailors, which were seen to be loaded with corn, arrived at full sail from opposite directions; they cut through the waves, passed rapidly before the eyes of the pleased spectators and disappeared; an instant after sailors were seen upon the shore with sacks of corn upon their shoulders which they put down on the shore; they then went away and returned again and again until it might be presumed that they had landed the whole cargo, every thing was then re-placed in its first situation.

In the street of the Bolseria the ame miracle was better performed; the ships stopped, the sails were lowered, and the anchors cast; sailors ran in great numbers upon the shore, and assisted in unloading the ships; those who were within gave

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the sacks of corn to those who were without, who placed them upon their shoulders, and carried them to the two mills which were always at work, and the corn was then immediately turned into flour. When the ships were unloaded the sails were spread, the anchors were raised, and they went away.

The miracle of the square of Mercado was of another kind; the husband and wife expressed by their gestures the grief which they felt for the death of their children: Saint Vincent arrived in the habit of the order of Saint Dominic, followed by a lay-brother of the same order; the master of the house informed him of the cause of their distress; during this time a servant entered, carrying a pye; but, stupified by what had passed under his eyes, he forgot to put it on the table, and remained motionless; the saint, affected by the situation of the good people who had received him into their house, approached the table, and gave his benediction to the stewpan; immediately the two children, restored to life, came out of it; they played, they leaped, they sprang upon the table, they ran to all the company one after the other, they jumped upon the neck of the father, of the mother, of the good monks, and the maid, and overwhelmed them with kisses and caresses. The servant, astonished at the prodigy, and filled with gratitude towards the good Dominican, offered him the pye, which she still held in her hands, and which the monk refused; the holy man gave his benediction to the pye, and a pigeon which it contained, though thoroughly baked, instantly came to life, took wing, and flew away.

All these figures were kinds of puppets of different sizes; those of the altar of Mercado were almost as large as life.

These representations were frequently repeated during the days and nights of Sunday and Monday. The people ran to see them in crowds, and beheld them with an eager curiosity; fascinated every time with the wonders that they had witnessed, they remained stationary to see them performed again.

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In the afternoon of Sunday the fishermen of Valencia formed a procession, in which they walked two and two with a wax candle in their hands, several of them in black velvet coats, and swords by their sides, and some of them in handsome dresses of figured velvets: they carried eight stages with representations of the Holy Virgin, Saint Peter, St. Vincent Ferrier, &c. Very extraordinary things were seen in this procession; two men dressed as Moorish kings, with great beards, and royal crowns on their heads, carried banners; a great number of children, some dressed as shepherds, others as sailors, others in a costume which cannot be defined, shook their tambourins, dancing and leaping along the procession; twelve men, dressed in white, played the castanets, also dancing and leaping about; twelve other men, in Turkish habits, marched with a grave and formal step; a great number of others, in white breeches and waistcoats with red mantles on their shoulders, masks upon their faces, and long white sticks in their hands, repeatedly throwing the stick into the air, and catching it as it fell, and playing various tricks with it.

Another extremely numerous procession, set out from the cathedral in the afternoon of the Monday. It was preceded by all the companies of tradesmen, each company marching in a body, with two long enormous standards before them, accompanied with a tambourin and a dulzayna. A forest of standards was seen following very near, which continued for a long time, and rising from the middle of an immense crowd, seemed to proceed from a moving ground; the men who carried them played a thousand tricks with them, tricks of strength and balancing; sometimes the standard slipped from their hands, and in its fall struck the inconsiderate head of the gaping multitude; at the same time the noise of so many tambourins, and the shrill and dissonant sound of so many dulzaynas made a hurly-burly, the discordant noises of which might excite laughter at first, but soon becomes tiresome.

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The eight giants followed, also playing antics; they marched, they stopped, they turned, and made bows; their pages, four in number, preceded them; these were men disguised as dwarfs; they wore pasteboard heads, which were monstrous from the enormity of their size and their figure; they were dressed in a grotesque manner, playing castanets and dancing as they proceeded. The regular clergy, who are very numerous, followed; then the secular clergy of the parishes, preceded by their crosses; and in the same manner the lower clergy and the chapter of the cathedral; after which were carried the relics of Saint Vincent Ferrier. The municipal body closed the procession.

Some other processions which took place on the same day, at ten o'clock at night concluded the festival; they only went through those streets where there were altars; in each of them was carried a statue of the saint to be deposited in the house of the person who was to pay the expenses of the festival on the following year; they were composed of persons of all ranks, with wax candles, and preceded by drums, tambourins, dulzaynas, and other musical instruments.

It is difficult to describe all that passes at these festivals. In the day every business is neglected but that of walking and running about, going from one altar to another, seeing, being seen, and returning ten times to the same place. The streets and squares where there are altars, are filled with an immense crowd; the streets leading to them are also full of persons of both sexes; we have only to go with the stream, and we are sure to pass by all the altars. The multitude stop before the altars to see the representations of the miracles; they seek their friends, find, and get near to one another; the crowd favours concealment; the stupid attention to the representation turns the attention from innumerable *tetê-à-tetês* which are going on in an immense crowd. Night arrives, every thing is again in motion, and the crowd increases; slouched hats or the men and hoods for the women favour intrigues

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which night covers with its shades; the mother often searches in vain for her daughter, and the husband for his wife; they lose themselves in the crowd, and are not to be found: the darkness of the night hides the consequences. There is little fear of discovery; they are surrounded by individuals who have the same intentions, indulgence is reciprocal.

EXCURSIONS IN THE ENVIRONS OF VALENCIA.

El Socos is a convent of Great Augustins, situated out of the town, to the left of the faubourg of Quarte, at the entrance of the beautiful country which surrounds Valencia.

We arrive at it by a short and broad avenue, at each end of which are orange trees cut breast high, and the sides are planted with orange, palm, and cypress trees. It leads to a portico of six large arches, supported by separate Dorio columns. There is a story over the portico; it has six balconies which correspond to the six arches below; they are ornamented with iron-railings, and decorated with small pilasters of the same order.

The church is simple, of Ionic architecture; there is nothing remarkable in it but some paintings by Vergara. The ceiling of the sanctuary is covered with paintings in fresco, but the execution of them is below mediocrity; they are by Francisco Bru. Some ancient paintings upon wood ornament the altars of St. Claude and of the Incarnation: the names of the painters are not known; they appear to have been painted in the beginning of the sixteenth century. All these pictures, though good, do not come near to the beauty of a small picture which is placed behind a glass at the bottom of the altar of Saint Augustin; it is a Virgin raising her eyes towards heaven with her head covered with a veil; delicacy, expression, truth, colouring, and uncommon beauty in the drapery, are found in this picture; it is by Guido.

In the chapel of Christ of the good Death, there is a crucifix, the sculptor of which has expressed in the features of the

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countenance all the pangs of the agony; the name of the artist is not known; it is believed to have been a production of the reign of Philip II.

In the sacristy there are likewise some good paintings, one of the birth of Jesus Christ upon wood, the painter of which is not known; a Virgin of the Sorrows, by Moralez; a Saviour of the World, by Ribalta; and two very small pictures which are amongst the relics; one of the Birth of Jesus Christ, and the other of the Adoration of the Kings; the former appears to be of the school of Raphael, the latter seems from another pencil and of a more remote date.

The chapel of Saint Thomas de Villanueva, which is of modern construction, forms a small distinct church, and has a handsome appearance; but there are a number of ornaments in it without either taste or proportion. The paintings are by Vergara; but they prove the youth of the artist, and the hurry in which they were done. The statues of the four cardinal virtues are by the brother of this painter; and the execution of the principal altar is by a monk of the same convent.

Convent of Saint Mary of Jesus. This is a convent of Observantin Cordeliers, situated about a mile from Valencia, surrounded by a magnificent country; it is inhabited by 130 monks. The church of it is simple, and has nothing remarkable but the chapel of the blessed Nicholas Factor, which was built in 1787.

This chapel is ornamented with Corinthian pilasters, cased in stucco, with gilt fillets and capitals; they are supported by pedestals of red, yellow, and white marble. It has a handsome dome, which is ornamented with paintings in fresco. Similar paintings ornament three sides of the chapel above the cornice, and the four angles of the spring of the dome; all these paintings are by Planes. Two large pictures, representing the miraculous achievements of the saint decorate the two sides of the chapel; they are by the same painter. The

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altar is simple; it has a picture by Vergara, representing Philip II. opening the tomb of Nicolas Factor, to see the mortal remains of that holy monk.

The church of St. John de la Rivera. This is the church of a convent of reformed Franciscans situated out of the town, almost at the end of the Alameda, below the bridge of the Sea. It has nothing remarkable but some pictures, one of the baptism of Jesus Christ upon the principal altar, by Alfonso Cano; one of the Conception, in the chapel of that name; one of Saint Francis, one of Saint Pascal, one of Saint Claire, and angels, upon brass, by Lazarus Baldi, at the entrance of the choir. The sanctuary is ornamented with paintings in fresco, by Antonio Ricarte.

The monastery of Saint Michael de los Reyes. This is a monastery of Jeronimites, situated upon the road which leads from Valencia to Murviedro and into Catalonia, about a mile from Valencia, leaving it by the gate and bridge of Serannos, and by the faubourg of Murviedro. It was founded by Ferdinand of Aragon and Ursula Germaine de Foix, his wife.

This monastery is in a delightful situation, in the middle of varied and ever-verdant fields. It is rich and contains fifty monks, who acknowledge that it has a revenue of 20,000 pezos (3,125*l.*) It is easy to believe that they do not exaggerate; report gives them double that sum.

Its appearance is not striking. A low wall without ornaments presents itself, through which a very ordinary gate opens; we enter into a large court, at the bottom of which we perceive the front of the church, and on one side the gate of the monastery.

The front of the church, which is of free-stone, has three stories of architecture of six columns each; the first of the Doric order, the second of the Ionic, and the third of the Corinthian; some wreathed, and others with spiral flutes; and the statues of the three magi. This front is supported by two

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large square towers, which rise on each side above the edifice; these towers have three stories of architecture, the two first without ornaments; an arched window opens on each side of the third between four Doric pilasters, and is terminated by a balustrade

In the interior of the monastery there is a large cloister, the architecture of which something resembles that of the cloister of the Evangelists in the Escurial, but the roof of it is perhaps too flat.

This monastery has a library, which is not very large; there are scarcely 3000 volumes, almost all of theology and history, and all ancient; but a collection of manuscripts of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries is preserved there, remarkable for the beauty and neatness of the writing, as well as for the delicacy and good preservation of the vignettes, borders, and other paintings.

The church has only a nave, of a good Doric architecture; it is ornamented with fluted pilasters, and galleries decorated with Ionic columns and pediments. The roof of it is rather flat, but well shot and with good taste. The cross-aisle is large and handsome, but not sufficiently extended; it is surmounted by a well-formed dome, something like that of the Escurial.

The sanctuary is raised in the form of a terrace, and surrounded by a handsome balustrade that extends along the steps by which it is ascended; it is paved with large squares of blue marble, inlaid with lace and flower-work, which is formed by incrustations of white marble. Two monuments of similar structure of the two founders are placed on the two sides of the sanctuary; their execution is but middling.

The principal altar is a ridiculous mixture of wooden ornaments, confused, without taste, and of columns made of different pieces of marble, which are badly polished and badly put together. The tabernacle is simple, but noble and handsome; the front of the altar is a mixture of marble of all co-

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lours, put together with great art, in imitation of birds and other animals, houses, Chinese pavilions, urns, vases, flowers; there are a number of similar fronts of altars in this church; they are the work of some monks of the monastery.

The sacristy is a handsome Gothic room, which has the appearance of a small church; there are some good paintings in it upon stone and upon copper.

This church contains a Crucifixion, by Ribalta; an Apparition of the Holy Virgin to Saint Bernard, which is by some attributed to Ribalta, and by others to Zurinena; some pictures of the school of Joannez, but more correctly designed; some paintings upon wood relating to the birth of Jesus Christ and the life of Saint Jerome, have been removed from the church to a gallery near the choir; they are antiques, but good: they are thought to be the productions of the earliest times of the revival of the arts. It is a pity that they are kept in a dark place, where they cannot be seen without a candle.

Sichas. In a great number of villages in the environs of Valencia we find monuments of the industry of the Moors; these are large excavations, the openings of which are narrow, but which enlarge in the interior; they are dug straight down, tolerably deep, and cased with free-stone. In these places the Moors preserved their corn, and the modern Valencians make them serve the same purpose. They are called *sichas* and *silhos*. The handsomest are at Burjasot; this village is the place where the celebrated actress L'Advenant was buried.

The Albufera is a large lake, which begins near the village of Catarroja, a league south of Valencia, and extends four leagues, as far as Cullera. When it is full, it is four leagues in length, two in breadth, and six in circumference; yet it is very shallow, small boats are scarcely able to float in it. When there is not enough of water in it, it is filled by means of a

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machine which draws into it the neighbouring waters; when it is too full it is carried into the sea by means of an opening made on purpose; it contains a great many fish, and there are a number of aquatic birds upon it. On certain days in the year, the inhabitants of Valencia amuse themselves with going out to shoot these birds, and the lake is covered with boats.

Manisez is a village situated a league and a quarter north of Valencia. It is seen on the left coming from New Castile. It is noted for its manufactories of earthen ware, which employ thirty kilns, and occupy a great part of the inhabitants. The women are employed in forming the designs and applying the colours. There are two large manufactories of a superior kind, the earthen ware of which is tolerably fine, of a beautiful white, and a moderate price. They also make here vases worked with a great degree of delicacy.

The society of these workmen possess the secret of the compostion of a colour which in the fire takes the tint and brightness of a beautiful gilt bronze. It has been unsuccessfully attempted to be imitated; the heads of the society compose the colour themselves, and distribute it to the masters who take care of it; it is a liquid of the colour of Spanish tobacco, but a little deeper.

Grao. We leave Valencia by the gate of the Sea, follow the faubourg of the Trinity, the bridge of the Sea, the road which is opposite the bridge along the left side of the Alameda, pass the convent of Saint John de la Ribera, afterwards take a lower road and arrive at Grao. This village was formerly surrounded by a wall, part of which still remains. It has two gates, one on the side of Valencia, the other towards the sea. On the latter side there is a bad fortress, where a governor resides; a lighthouse on the most elevated part, and which is lighted every night, serves as a guide to sailors.

The coast of Grao is very low, and exposed to the violent

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east and west winds. It has neither shelter for ships, depth of water sufficient to allow them to approach, nor a convenient spot for landing, so that they must remain half a league out at sea; the cargoes are put into boats which bring them towards the shore, and they are drawn by oxen to the dry land.

Notwithstanding these inconveniences, there are always several ships seen at anchor at Grao, and others which are refitting or preparing to put to sea; they carry on a coasting trade along the Mediterranean; on one side, on the coasts of Catalonia, Roussillon, Languedoc, and as far as Marseilles; and on the other side, to Alicant, Carthagena, and Malaga; some even pass the Straits of Gibraltar, into the Atlantic, and go to Cadiz; sometimes they go round Portugal as far as the ports of Galicia. The largest of these ships are from fifty to sixty tons, their crews do not exceed eleven men; they carry out wines, silk, wool, dry fruits, and kali, and bring back in return linens, woollens, ironmongery, spices, and corn.

It was upon this flat shore that the troops of the archduke Charles of Austria attempted, in 1700, to effect a debarkation to surprise Valencia; but they were repulsed by Antonio del Valle, who commanded in the town for Philip V.

Grao is very pleasant in summer, on account of the sea-baths which are there; a great number of people resort to it in tartanes by water, or in one-horse chaises by land, to bathe; and several families pass a part of the fine season in their country houses near this village.

ROAD FROM VALENCIA TO LIRIA XERICA AND SEGORBE, 17 LEAGUES AND A QUARTER.

	LEAGUES.
Valencia to	
Benifarach (a village)	¼
Moncada (a town)	¾

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	LEAGUES.
Porta-Celi (a Carthusian monastery)	3
La Torre (a barn)	¾
Liria (a town)	1¾
Alcublas (a village)	4
Andilla (a town)	2
Canales (a village)	1
Canales (a river without a bridge)	1½
Bexis (a town)	¾
Toras (a village)	¾
Vivel (a town)	1¾
Xerica (a town)	¾
Palencia (a river and bridge)	¼
La Esperanza (a monastery of Jeronimites)	1
Segorbe (a town)	¼

We leave Valencia by the faubourg of Murviedro, and cross the village of Benifarach; after travelling a league we come to Moncada, an old town now reduced to a village, at the entrance of the beautiful country which surrounds Valencia: it has a parish church, a convent of Dominicans, and a population of about a thousand inhabitants

The country here begin to be parched; it is nevertheless covered with vines, olive, and carob-trees. The land rises insensibly, and after travelling a league we pass near the village of Vetera, which we leave on the left. We continue to ascend for a league, then enter a wood of pines, intermixed with fields and plantations of olive trees, which leads to Porta celi.

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PORTA CELI is a Carthusian monastery built on an eminence, in a fine situation amidst fertile lands, commanding a vast extent of sea, and a rich and delightful country. Every thing here breathes peace and tranquillity; all is simple and rustic, but agreeable. The cells are clean, the buildings of an elegant simplicity, the gardens are variegated and well kept; the tombs, where the bodies of the monks are deposited, have a peculiar beauty; palm-trees shade them, and roses diffuse through the air a sweetness which counteracts the infectious odour of the miasmata, that exhale from the dead bodies.

The church has several good pictures by Cano, Espinosa, and Ribalta, amongst which we distinguish a Virgin feeding an infant Jesus; a statue of the Virgin by Ignacio Vergara; paintings in fresco by Luis Planes, cover the vault of the sanctuary. In the sacristy is an infant Jesus surrounded by seraphim, a St. John the Baptist in his infancy, and St. John the Evangelist also in infancy, a Birth of Christ.

On leaving the Carthusian monastery, we follow the road to the west; after travelling half a league we come to la Torre, a barn belonging to the same monastery; it is here that the good wine de da Cartuxa is made, which is sold as high as ten reals a bottle. The land here becomes level, and is planted almost throughout with olive and carob-trees. The plain is bordered on the right, at a small distance, by a

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mountain of no great elevation, on which are seen the villages of Gatova, Marines, and Olla. We now arrive at Liria, two leagues distant from the monastery.

Liria is a very ancient town, which, it is said, existed before the arrival of the Phenicians in Spain. It bore the name of Edera under the Carthaginians, and of Edeta and of Laurona under the Romans, when it was the capital, or chief place in the country of the people called Edetani. There are some Roman monuments to be seen here, amongst which we distinguish an inscription found in 1759 in one of the channels of a fountain, and placed at the door of the abbey de la Cure.

This town was almost destroyed during the wars of Sertorius and Pompey; but being afterwards rebuilt, was taken by the Goths from the Romans, from the Goths by the Moors, and from them in 1252 by James the Conqueror, king of Aragon, who changed its position a little.

It is situated between two little hills. It has a parish church, two chapels of ease, two convents of Trinitarian and Franciscan monks, and a population of about six or seven thousand souls. The front of the parish church, which has three stories of architecture, is well executed.

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This town has the title of duchy. It was given by king Philip V. to mareschal Berwick, whose descendants possess it to this day.

On leaving Liria we cross, for the space of two leagues and a half, a plain interspersed with fields and vineyards, and abounding in olive and carob-trees. A steep and long ascent called Las Lacobas leads to the top of the mountain on which there is a plain, and at its extremity the village of Las Alcublas, four leagues from Liria, and which has a population of about fourteen hundred inhabitants.

We proceed for two leagues amidst lofty yet agreeable mountains, covered with shrubs, medicinal plants, and occasionally with plots of vines; and then arrive at the entrance of a very deep valley, where we find the little town of Andilla.

ANDILLA was only a farm under the Moors, and became a town under James I. king of Aragon, who built and peopled it. It is situated on a mountainous site, and its population is only about five hundred inhabitants. Its church has some good paintings, amongst which we distinguish several by Castañeda, and particularly four by Ribalta; a Presentation of the Virgin Mary in the Temple, a Circumcision, a Nativity of the Holy Virgin, and a Visitation.

On leaving Andilla we still follow a steep

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ascent, come to the village of Canales, continue along the side of the mountain called Vellida, and perceive very near us that of Cubillo. The road becomes very bad from a constant succession of acclivities and declivities, on the very brinks of precipices. On reaching a dell we cross the little river Canales, and again ascend an eminence, where we find Bexis.

Bexis, a little town of about a thousand inhabitants, formerly a fortified town, and now a commandery of the order of Calatrava. It is in a situation not very agreeable, on the top of a mountain, surrounded by other mountains, which being more lofty cover and command it. It was inhabited by the Romans; there are still legible two Roman inscriptions on the barn of Alcaydon, which is only a quarter of a league from it.

Half a league beyond Bexis we come to Toras, a little village. The land becomes more even, and the road is bordered with vineyards. In the course of a league and a half we reach Vivel.

Vivel is a little town in a fine situation near the river Palencia. It has a parish church, a convent of minim monks, and a population of about thirteen hundred inhabitants. Some think that it is the ancient Belsinum, afterwards Vi-

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varium of the Romans. We still find in it several Roman inscriptions.

Soon after leaving Vivel we perceive to the left the villages of Candiel and of Maté, and half a league more brings us to Xerica by a pleasant road, through a fertile country well wooded and cultivated.

Xerica, according to some, is the ancient Ociserda or Etobesa; according to others the Lexeta or Laxata of the Romans. This town is situated near the river Palencia, on the side of a mountain at the top of which are to be seen the ruins of a strong castle: it is surrounded with walls flanked with towers, and was taken from the Moors in 1235 by James I. king of Aragon. Its population is 2300 inhabitants. It has a parish church served by a considerable number of clergymen, two convents of Capuchins and Great Augustins, a hospital, three hermitages or private chapels, three fountains, and a bridge. We here find some Roman inscriptions, the greater part of which are sepulchral. It is said that the Romans had schools here, where the sciences and the use of arms were taught. This little town gave birth to Francisco Loscos, who wrote on philosophy.

We proceed on a road between little mountains, sometimes separated by small vales. We pass the river Palencia over a bridge built in

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1570, at the expence of Juan de Muñatones, bishop of Segorbe. After travelling a league and a half we come to la Esperanza, a monastery of Jeronimites, situated on a mountain, at the foot of which a spring produces sufficient water to turn two mills, and water the countries of Navajas, of Segorbe, and Altura; it is pretended that these waters have the property of petrifying bodies which continue any time in them. About a quarter of a league farther we arrive at Segorbe.

SEGORBE is a town with the title of duchy, agreeably situated in a very fertile vale, abounding in grain and in fruit, on the river of the same name, which there takes that of Murviedro. Its population is twelve hundred families, or about six thousand souls.

Some people relying on the similarity of names, pretend that this is the ancient Segobriga, which we find on many Roman medals; others, on the contrary, place that ancient town in Castile, and others again in Aragon.

Segorbe is the see of a bishop, suffragan to Valencia, the diocese of which comprehends forty-two parishes. The clergy of its cathedral are composed of four dignitaries, ten canons, twenty-four beneficiaries, and thirty-three chaplains.

This town has four convents of monks; Franciscans, Dominicans, capuchins, and of Mercy; a convent of nuns, a seminary, a hospital, five hermitages, oratories or chapels, a provisor, who is at once official and vicar-general of the dio-

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cese; nine gates, and six squares. It abounds in fountains; there are three which are public, and about forty in private houses. It was taken from the Moors in 1245 by James I. king of Aragon.

The cathedral church has some paintings of the school of Joannez, and of that of Ribalta.

The church of the convent of nuns is of a good architecture, and has some good paintings. In parts of this church are paintings of superior merit, for instance a Descent of Jesus Christ into hell by Ribalta. A Conception in the style of Joannez; a Transfiguration, a Resurrection, an eternal Father, &c.

The seminary is kept in the ancient house of the Jesuits. In the church is the monument of the founder of this house, by Pedro Mirallez, a native of Bexis, whose life was a series of singular adventures, by which he became very opulent. The statue of Mirallez is well executed. Antonio Ximen, a poet of the commencement of the sixteenth century, and Juan Valero, a theologian of the beginning of the seventeenth were born in this town.

At a quarter of a league from Segorbe stands the Charthusian monastery of val de Christo founded by the infant don Martin, son and successor of Peter the IV. king of Aragon. We find good paintings here by Vergara, Camaron, Donoso, Joannez, and Orrente. The monks have established a paper manufactory at Altura, a village of about 1500 inhabitants, which belongs to them, and which is at a quarter league's distance between their monastery and Segorbe.

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ROAD FROM VALENCIA TO SAN-FELIPE, NINE LEAGUES AND A HALF.

Three different roads lead from Valencia to San-Felipe.

The first has already been described from Valencia to Jucar on the road to Madrid. Crossing the ferry on this river we turn to the left and arrive at San-Felipe, after travelling two leagues. This road is nine leagues.

The second is on the same road as far as the Venta del Rey and to the village Rocla, where we turn to the left, and it is but three quarters of a league farther to San-Felipe. This road is also nine leagues.

The third is the following; half a league longer than the two others.

	LEAGUES.
Valencia to	
Catarroja, (a village)	1
Silla, (a village)	1
Almosafez, (a village)	1
Algemesi, (a town)	1
Alzira, (a town)	2
Carcajente, (a town)	½
Cullada, (a village)	1
La Pueblalarga, (a village)	½
Manuel, (a village)	1
San-Felipe, (a town)	½

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On leaving Valencia we go through the fine country which surrounds that town. A league after, we come to Catarroja, a village of about three thousand inhabitants, the greater part fishermen; and after an other league to that of Silla, both situated near the lake of Albufera. We afterwards come to the village of Almosafes, and the little town of Algemesi, a league from each other. Proceeding for two leagues further we arrive at Alzira.

Alzira or Alcira (Sacro under the Carthaginians, Sœtabicula under the Romans, Algezira, or Algecira, under the Arabs) is a considerable town, of about ten thousand souls, situated on the Jucar, which surrounds and gives it the appearance of an island. It has a parish church, two chapels of ease, six convents, a corregidor, a hospital, and two fine bridges on the Jucar; its streets are narrow, and crooked. It gave birth to the poet Vincent Gascò de Siurana, who flourished in 1406, and who was highly extolled by Lopez de Vega. At half a league from Alzira we reach Carcagente, a little town of about four thousand souls, airy and tolerably well built, with a parish church, a convent of monks, and one of nuns. In another league we come to the village of Cullada, thence to the Puebla larga, another village. In

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one league more we come to the village of Manuell, and very soon after arrive at San Felipe.

SAN-FELIPE is a very ancient town, which was famous under the Romans by whom it was subdued; it then bore the name of Setabis: the Moors changed this name to that of Xixona and afterwards Xativa, which it preserved till the commencement of the eighteenth century, when it took that of San-Felipe.

Xativa was one of the towns most exasperated against Phillip V. and the most obstinate in their rebellion against that prince. The town within was the theatre of exploits which would have done honour to the warriors of any age, if courage and honour alone had directed them.

This rebellious town was besieged by the chevalier d'Asfelt in the month of May 1706. Its garrison consisted of some battalions of English troops only; but the courage of its inhabitants constituted its principal force.

Though the French army was at the foot of the breach, menacing the town with an assault, the inhabitants, equally deaf to the fear of death and to the offers of pardon, would not yield. The assault was made, they every where fought with a courage supported by ungovernable rage; but at length they were overcome and the town was carried. The sword was raised, the inhabitants braved the fury of the soldiers, and pre-

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ferred death, they said, to obeying Philip. The order for slaughter was given; these unhappy victims of obstinacy, presented themselves to the sword and mutually animated each other to die; but wishing to bury their town with them they set fire to it. The soldiers seconded them; the sword in one hand, the fire-brand in the other, they fought and set fire to the buildings.

In a little time rivers of blood filled the squares and inundated the streets; heaps of dead and dying bodies covered the surface, volumes of flame rose in the air, the cries of soldiers, the groans of the dying, the crash of falling houses, and an atmosphere on fire, formed a spectacle of horror sufficient to appal the most insensible. All perished, men, women, old and young; the French general could save only a few women and priests; it was no longer possible to controul the soldiers. No more of Xativa remained, neither ramparts nor edifices, nor inhabitants, nor even the name it had borne until then. A new town arose from its ashes, and it was called San-Felipe.

The inhabitants of the new city have not yet forgotten that it was the French who destroyed Xativa; and their resentment is transmitted from father to son.

Extent and Situation. This town is situated on the side of a calcareous mountain, and below two castles which are falling to decay. Its extent is considerable, but its popula-

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tion is only about 10,000 souls. It has 22 fountains, a paper manufactory, and suburbs, in which there are fountains and walks.

Administration, Ecclesiastical and Civil. The ancient Xativa had formerly and in remote times an episcopal see. Modern San-Felipe has a collegiate chapter, the church of which, lately built, is tolerably handsome, in imitation of the Gothic style, three parish churches, six convents of monks, two convents of nuns, a hospital for the sick, and a hospital for poor widows; this town is governed by a corregidor, and an alcalde mayor for the administration of justice.

It is commanded by a castle built on the rock, and which has in it a convent of Bernardins. It contains some cisterns; and there are vestiges of the works of the Romans and Moors, and several Roman inscriptions.

Xativa is also celebrated for the distinguished men which it has given birth to. The celebrated historian Mohamed-Abu-Amer, better known by the name of Almoncarral was born here in the eleventh century. This historian did not confine himself to doing honour to his country by his writings, he founded an academy of history, which was celebrated, and which existed until the expulsion of the Moors. Juan Mingues, Jerome Tamarit, and Francisco Gutierrez, theologians of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, were born here, as were Francisco Franco, a physician, who wrote in the sixteenth century on contagious diseases; Jacobo Beltran, whose poetry is in the Valencian tongue. This too was the birth-place of Pope Calixtus III.; of Alexander VI., and of the painter Joseph Ribera, better known by the name of the Espagnolet; he died in 1656.

The territory of San-Felipe produces every kind of fruit, corn, maize, silk, wine, oil, carobs, and particularly rice, which is one of the principal articles of cultivation. It was formerly famous for the fineness of its hemp, its flax, and especially its linens, which Pliny placed amongst the best of

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Europe, and which Silius Italicus preferred to the finest of Arabia. It was indeed the beauty of its linens which caused the manufactories of paper to be established at Xativa; these were the first in Europe. They existed so long ago as the twelfth century, and it was to the Moors they owed their existence and success.

ROAD FROM VALENCIA TO THE FRONTIERS OF CATALONIA*, TWENTY-ONE LEAGUES THREE-QUARTERS.

	LEAGUES.
VALENCIA to ----------	
S. Miguel de los Reyes, (a monastery)----------	⅛
Tabernes, (a village)----------	¼
Casas de Barsena, (some houses)----------	¼
Albalat, (a village)----------	¼
Venta del Emperador----------	⅛
Masa Magrell, (a village)----------	⅛
La Cruz del Puch, (a village)----------	⅛
Ara Christi, (a Carthusian monastery)----------	¼
Mesones de Puzol----------	¼
Murviedro, (a town)----------1	⅛
A gulley, (without a bridge)----------	
Almenara, (a town)----------1	⅛
A hamlet----------	¼
Chinches, (a village) ----------	¼
Nules, (a town)---------- 1	⅛
Villareal, (a town)----------1	¼
Mijares, (a river and bridge) ----------	⅛
Castellon de la Plana, (a town)----------1	¼
Casas de Benicasi, (a hamlet)----------2	
Oropesa, (a town) ----------1	¼
Venta de la Sanieta----------1	¼
Torreblanca, (a village)----------1	¼
A gulley, (without a bridge)----------	
Alcala de Chivert, (a town)----------1	¼

* Road from Valencia to Barcelona.

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	LEAGUES.
A hamlet	½
A deep gulley, (without a bridge)	½
Benicarlo, (a town)	1
A gulley	
Vinaros, (a town)	1
Servol, (river without a bridge)	
A gulley	½
La Cena, (a river and bridge)	½

We leave Valencia by the bridge of Serranos, pass through the large faubourg of Murviedro, and for some time travel through the beautiful country which surrounds Valencia.

The road we follow is the continuation of that which leads from Madrid to Valencia; this too is fine, and extends through a space of eleven leagues; the bridges here are numerous even over the smallest rivulets, and there are many causeways raised with brick work; parapets, properly placed, provide for the safety of the traveller; windings are managed with skill on the declivities of hills; handsome houses are seen at intervals, mile stones are placed at every league; and direction posts are erected wherever necessary on the road.

We soon pass by the monastery of San Miguel de los Reyes; and perceive on the right, the village of Oriols; we then reach that of Tabernes, after which we cross a large and fine bridge without water. We come afterwards to the

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Casas de Barsena, which consist of a row of houses forming a line on the side of the road, and whence we perceive at three hundred paces to the left, the village of Foios.

We proceed rapidly to Albalat, a large village, the houses of which are tolerably well built, to the Venta del imperador, where we find on the right a long row of handsome houses, and a very pretty pavilion which we perceive on the top of a tower. We leave on the left the village of Museros. We then pass on to Masamagrell, a very long, narrow, and ill built village, to Cruz del Puch, also a village, and to Ara Christi, a Carthusian monastery, which we see on the left, the lands of which extend to the road. We come to the village of Rafelbuñol also on the left, and leave the town of el Puch, very near us on the right. It is in a plain, but surrounded with mountains; it has a convent monks of Mercy, a parish church, a hospital, a fine square with a fountain, and a population of three hundred families or about fifteen hundred inhabitants.

All the places we have named are within the short distance of a league and a half. The plain is celebrated for the victory which James the Conqueror gained in 1237 over the Moorish king Zaen, and which led to the conquest of Valencia. A convent of monks

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of the order of Mercy, occupies on a small neighbouring hill the site of the ancient castle of Puch; a collection of portraits of great men is preserved here.

Here begin forests of olives and vines, which become thicker and thicker. We perceive, fronting us, mountains at a distance, which unfold themselves as we advance; and soon after, the eye discovers, but far off, the vestiges of ancient castles, which the Moors had erected on the ruins of ancient Phenician and Roman fortifications.

We proceed to Mesones de Puzol, where we find a long range of inns. We perceive at the same time, at a short distance on the right, the town of Puzol, which was only a hamlet under the Moors, but was built and peopled in 1242, by Salido de Gudal, to whom James I. gave it; it has now about fifteen hundred inhabitants.

The ruins of ancient Saguntum gradually appear as we advance; they look on the mountain like seven castles one after another, which perhaps were only divisions of the same fortress: some of them are completely in ruins, while the others are almost entire; formerly they had all subterraneous communications one with the other. Sublime recollections occupy the mind, and we arrive at Murviedro without perceiving

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the length of the road, although that town is a league and a half from Mesones de Puzol.

Murviedro is a long and narrow town, a league from the sea at the foot of a mountain of black marble veined with white. It stands at the extremity of a vast plain, where nature assisted by art developes abundant riches, where contiguous villages give it an air of life and motion, and where we perceive at short distances, the villages of Fauro, Benifayro, Cuartell, Benabites, and Santa-Coloma, whose inhabitants with industrious activity vie with one another in fertilizing fields, formerly flowing with the blood of the Saguntines, Carthaginians, and Romans.

The modern name of Murviedro is said to be derived from *muri veteres* or from *muros viejos*, because this town is erected on the ruins of Saguntum*.

Extent and Population.—This town, situated in the ancient country of the Edetani, is surrounded by lofty walls and flanked by small round towers. The inclosure has several

* If we are to credit Livy, *de bello Hispanico*, lib. xxi, c. 7; Apollodorus, Chronic., lib. iii.; Pliny, lib. xvii. chap. ii; Silius Italicus, lib. ii.; and Strabo, lib. iii. Saguntum was founded by a colony of Grecians, from the island of Zante, whose inhabitants, called Zacinthians, were a mixture of Arcadians and Achaians. The period is fixed at 209 years before the Trojan war.

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gates, which are all defended by square towers; the interior is disagreeable and dark; the streets narrow, crooked and steep, and the houses have a bad appearance. The suburbs are very extensive, more agreeable and airy than the town, and perfectly level. The inhabitants amount to about 5000.

Clergy. Administration.—Here is one tolerably fine parish church, three chapels of ease, two convents of monks, one of rigid Franciscans, the other of Trinitarians; (the church belonging to the last contains some pictures by Misana, a monk of this house, who united a taste for the arts with extensive literary knowledge) a convent of nuns, and a corregidor. This town gave birth to Joseph Garcias, a tolerable painter of the beginning of the eighteenth century.

Commerce.—Here are some distilleries of brandy, which is exported to the north of Europe and to America; but it has a more certain resource in the productions of the neighbouring lands, in oil, wine, wheat, barley, hemp, and carobs.

Antiquities.—It is impossible to go over Murviedro without experiencing a sentiment of veneration for the memory of its ancient inhabitants; at every step we take we are put in mind of the courage of the Saguntins, the triumph and the vengeance of the Carthaginians, and the grandeur of the Romans; we cannot examine it without reflecting at once on its glory under the Saguntins, its destruction under the Carthaginians, its magnificence under the Romans, and the annihilation of the monuments of the luxury, greatness, and power of those nations, under the destructive hands of the Arabs.

The vestiges of the Roman power which we now find here are only the insignificant remains of what they were formerly; it still retains, however, something impressive and majestic.

Celtiberian and Roman inscriptions are seen on every side; we find on several modern edifices and in ancient fortifications, the stones on which they are engraven; we walk over them on the thresholds of the doors, and on the stairs; and often

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lament the ignorance of those who have degraded them, or who, by putting them to different uses than those they were intended for, have reversed or destroyed them.

There are several in unknown characters, which are said to be Celtiberian; at the entrance of the cloisters of the convent of the Trinitarians, at the side of the gate of la Villa, and on the walls of the chapel de la Sangre.

Numerous statues ornamented the temples and the other public edifices of Saguntum, most of which have been destroyed; some of them have been conveyed to the archiepiscopal palace of Valencia; and there remains at Murviedro only a single statue, which is of white marble without a head, and a fragment of another.

Saguntum had its temples, of which very few vestiges remain: that consecrated to Diana occupied the spot on which the Trinitarian convent now stands; but not a trace of it is to be found. It is said that part of its ruins was converted into materials for building the church of this convent, and that of the monastery of St. Michael de los Reyes, near Valencia.

We find the ruins of three steps in that part of the castle called the Hermita, near the cistern; they are the remains of a greater number which led to a temple, the bases and plinths of the columns of which are still visible.

Another temple seems to have stood on the spot where that part of the castle stands, which forms the third division; we still see its foundations, the extent and solidity of which are admirable; they are at the side of the ruins of an immense cistern. It is supposed to have been dedicated to Hercules, An adjacent square bears the name of that demi-god, and in the middle of the square there is a tower, half destroyed, which tradition reports to be a burial place of a companion of Hercules; some, with more probability, believe it to be the burying place of a Carthaginian general.

Saguntum had a circus, the walls of which are still distinguishable in the lower part of the enclosures of a succession

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of orchards, behind the convent of the Trinitarians. This circus had the form of a semi-ellipsis, the two extremes of which terminated at the little river Palencia.

In digging to make a road from Valencia to Murviedro in 1755, at the entrance of the latter town a mosaic pavement was discovered; it was entire and of such beauty that it was thought worthy of preservation: Ferdinand VI. caused it to be surrounded with walls; but the king's intentions were not properly fulfilled; the gates were suffered to remain open, and every one carried away some part of the pavement, which consequently soon became despoiled; it was rectangular, and measured 24 feet by 14. There are still some fragments of it in several houses at Murviedro. A priest of that town, don Diego Puch, an antiquarian, took a drawing of it, which he afterwards had painted at Valencia on the tiles fabricated there, and paved an apartment in his house with them. It was likewise copied with the greatest exactness, with small stones perfectly similar, in an apartment of the library belonging to the archiepiscopal palace, as we have already stated.

A greater portion of the theatre remains than any other Roman monument. It is at the foot of a mountain which shelters it from the south and west winds, we still see the semicircle where the spectators sat, the doors by which the magistrates entered, the judges' seats, those appropriated to the lictors, and to courtezans. The *vomitoria*, or passages by which the public came out, are still to be seen.

Some years ago a corregidor of Murviedro desirous of giving an exhibition of the entertainments formerly represented there, caused the parts of the theatre that were destroyed to be reconstructed in wood-work, and had a play performed in the very place where the Romans had so long embellished the drama. How gratifying must it have been to the spectators to think that they were occupying a place formerly filled by the masters of the world! It was probably this entertainment which suggested to the minister D'Aranda, the idea of

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of appointing a keeper to take care of this monument, which would otherwise have been entirely lost, notwithstanding the most positive orders of the court.

The Proscenium was already crowded with thatched cottages and a row of mulberry trees; and the stage was occupied by the wheels of rope-makers; every thing, however, has been cleared away by the assiduity of M. d'Aranda; and the inhabitants now enjoy the sight of an edifice which, by recalling the glorious remembrance of the people who raised it, ought to stimulate them to imitate their virtues.

On leaving Murviedro we cross a large gulley, which, though commonly without water, becomes dangerous during the rains. We proceed to the right along an immense plain, sown with corn and planted with olive trees, and vines; and on the left we have mountains which we approach and leave alternately. After three quarters of a league we perceive on the left a multitude of villages, which seem to stand in clusters; we distinguish particularly Cuartell, Fauro, Benifyaro, Benabites, and Santa Coloma. In three quarters of a league farther we come to Almenara, a little town, situated at the foot of a mountain, a continuation of those by the sides of which we have been riding, and which turns round in a semi-circle as if to cover it; here we see the ruins of an ancient castle. This town is surrounded by walls; it has two suburbs, a parish church, and a Dominican convent.

We still proceed along the side of the moun-

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tain; and going over a little eminence on the right by a short and easy ascent, discover an immense plain covered with trees and habitations, and terminated by the sea; to the left are barren mountains. We pass on to a hamlet, and a little more than a mile farther perceive the village of Chinches, which we pass at the distance of two hundred paces. Here the country widens, the mountains retire, and we find ourselves in an extensive plain, where we see only fields, vines, olive and mulberry trees. In another league we discover Nulez, which opens upon us agreeably; we enter it leaving to the left Villavieja, a village where there are cold mineral springs.

Nulez is a small town, and has the title of marquisate. It is square, and surrounded with walls flanked with towers: it has four gates. Its streets are narrow, but straight, and the houses have a poor appearance. It has a parish church, a convent for barefoot Carmelites, a convent of Carmelite nuns, a hospital, an alcalde mayor, four regidors, and a population amounting to about three thousand four hundred inhabitants. We enter this town by a suburb, which has a fine street, and we leave it by another suburb in which the convent of Carmelite monks is situated. This town declared against Phillip V.; but intimidated by the fate of Villareal, the inhabitants

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laid down their arms, and surrendered to the count de Torrez, in 1706.

On quitting Nulez we leave to the right Muscarell, a village that has the title of marquisate; and we discover Villareal, which we reach after travelling three quarters of a league.

Villareal was only a pleasure house built by James I. king of Aragon, in 1272, for his children: it then bore the name of *placio real* or royal palace. It increased in the course of time, became a town, and changed its name to that of *villa real* or royal town; it has now the title of marquisate.

This town, which is nearly square, retains some vestiges of its ancient walls; the remains of the fortifications which defended its approaches are still seen: its gates are modern, but they are placed on the same spots where the ancient ones stood.

Villareal declared for the archduke Charles during the war of the succession; but it was taken in 1706 by the troops of Philip V. who destroyed the walls, put the inhabitants to the sword, and reduced the houses to ashes: consequently we neither see houses nor edifices of an ancient date; they are all of the eighteenth century.

Extent and Population.—This town, situated in the plain on the banks of Mijares, has two convents for monks, one of

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Franciscans, the other of grand Carmelites; a convent for nuns, and a parish church, the steeple of which is a handsome octagonal tower, very lofty: the population amounts to about 5,500 persons. It has two suburbs; we enter by one and go out by the other, and cross the town through a very long regular street, the houses of which are tolerably well built. The first suburb leads to a gate of the town, which is a fine structure, having two Doric pilasters, with a grand balcony, surmounted by a pavilion. The other suburb is perhaps larger than the town and first suburb together.

Francisco Juan Mas, a character of considerable literary eminence in the seventeenth century, Gil Trallench, and Didax Mas, theologians, were born in this town.

In less than half a mile from Villareal we pass the Mijarez over a very long bridge built with free-stone, furnished with stone seats at regular distances, and ornamented at its two extremities with two small circular places, where four inscriptions engraven on large squares of black marble inform us, that it was finished in 1790, and that it was built at the expense of some towns of the kingdom of Valencia there named. We begin here to perceive the steeples of Castello de la Plana, seeing at the same time, to the left, the village of Onda and the little town of Altura, the population of which amounts to about three thousand souls, and where we find a manufactory of earthenware: on the right, between the road and the sea, we observe the villages of Almanzora and Burriana: the latter (the Medina aladra of the Moors) was the birth-

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place of Martin de Viciosa, an historian of the sixteenth century, who wrote the Chronicle of the kingdom of Valencia.

The soil of Murviedro, so often covered with the blood of the Saguntins, Carthaginians, and Romans, was again, in the thirteenth century, drenched with that of the Spaniards, Catalans, French, and Moors.

The plain of Almenara, which we have just passed over, was also bathed with blood, at the commencement of the eighteenth century; it was the field where Philip V. in person, and the generals of the archduke Charles had a sanguinary battle on the 27th July, 1709, where the courage of the former not being seconded by fortune, the latter obtained a victory over his adversary; where Stahremberg remained master of the field of battle; and where thousands fell victims on both sides.

It is impossible to pass over these places without thinking of the events of which they were the theatre. These fields, lovely, smiling, and fertile as they now are, were so often divastated, so often deluged with the blood of innumerable warriors, that we cannot escape the painful feeling excited by the thought of their owing perhaps the fertility we admire to the torrents of blood which have flowed over them, and the thousands of human bodies which have mingled the soil.

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The land soon becomes bad and covered with carob-trees. For three quarters of a league we proceed to the left by the side of a wood of firs; and soon after arrive at Castello de la Plana, which we enter by a great suburb, and proceed through it by a long, wide street, but of which the houses are low and badly built.

Castello de la Plana, called Castalia in the time of the Moors, was then situated on an eminence, half a league farther to the north; James I. king of Aragon, after having conquered it in 1233, transferred it to the place where it now stands; from which time it took the name it bears.

Extent and Population.—This town, situated in the middle of an extensive plain, and half a league from the sea, has still the ruins of its ancient walls and of some square towers; it has eight gates and two large suburbs; several of its streets are straight and wide; we particularly distinguish the calle mayor or great street, and the calle del medio which pass through the length of it in direct lines. The houses here are simple but well built, and of an agreeable appearance. There are two great squares, that of the town-hall and that of Ravalet; the first is embellished by the façades of the town-hall and of the principal church; which is the larger of the two. Trees were planted round it in 1791. Its population is about eleven hundred souls.

Clergy. Castello has three parish churches, four convents for monks, two convents for nuns, two hospitals, one for sick poor, the other for travellers and pilgrims, and three chapels or oratories.

Civil and Military Administration.—It has a civil and mi-

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litary governor, and an alcalde mayor for the administration of justice.

Some of the buildings of this town contain objects worthy observation.

La Ermita del Christo is a chapel out of the town; the vault is covered with paintings in fresco, the appearance of which is agreeable.

The chapel de la Sangre is a little private church, ornamented with Corinthian pilasters, covered with stucco, the chapiters of which are gilt. The grand altar has four pictures of a middling size, relative to some of the events of the Passion of Jesus Christ, by Ribalta: some other paintings by this master once ornamented this altar, but they have been lost through the negligence of those who suffered them to be destroyed by the worms and dust.

The chapel of the Sepulchre has some paintings by Vergara; the grand altar is a mass of gilt wood, where a sepulchre is preserved, affirmed *to have been made by the angels*: it is covered with a fine painting of the Transfiguration of Jesus Christ, by Vergara.

The town-hall has a facing of free-stone, with three stories of architecture, Doric and Corinthian. A fourth story was begun to be raised at each extremity; but the work was interrupted. This façade is handsome and the architecture good.

The tower of the Bells is an insulated tower, situated in the square of the town-hall, and has a dignified appearance. It is octagon and has five stories of architecture, each separated from the other by cordons slightly projecting. The building of this tower was begun in 1591, and ended in 1604. It is about 260 feet high, and 116 in circumference.

The Iglesia Mayor is also situated in the square of the town-hall; its façade appears very ancient, of free stone, and in the Gothic style: The portal is a composition of light airy arches, one over the other, but in such a way that they

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diminish and enter gradually from the top of the opening to the lintel of the door. The church has a large nave of beautiful Gothic architecture, but disfigured by monstrous ornaments. The altar has nothing remarkable but two small pictures at the sides.

This town gave birth to Francisco Jover, a theologian of the middle of the sixteenth century; and to Andres Capero, who published a Collection of Sermons in 1670.

Castello de la Plana is rich in the quantity and variety of productions in the country around it; in no part do we see the marks of poverty. There is a great deal of sail-cloth manufactured here, and rigging for ships. There are two inns, that with the sign of the Lion is new and handsome; one is not badly accommodated in it, nor charged very high.

The fine road we travelled from Valencia does not go beyond Castello de la Plana; the one we take on leaving this town is very stony and rough, it passes through a plain bounded on the right by the sea, at a distance of half a league, on the left by mountains which we see at a distance, and before by other mountains which appear nearer. We occasionally get a glimpse of the sea, and should have a full view of it were the trees not so numerous: these are all carobs.

The road keeps continually turning to the right, so as to be always at the same distance from the mountains which seem to fly before the travellers. It is sometimes stony, sometimes sandy, and always bad. The land becomes dry, parched, and uncultivated, but covered with

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carob trees. After travelling for about three leagues from Castello de la Plana, the trees disappear and the sea presents itself in its whole extent at the distance of a quarter of a league. We now proceed along the sea-shore, and perceive on the same side las Casas de Benicasi, a little hamlet where the Abbé Bayer, of whom we have spoken several times, caused a small church to be built on the plan of Don Marc Ibañez: we find in it some paintings by Joseph Camaron. We afterwards come to one of the worst Ventas in Spain.

We proceed along the sea-shore for a quarter of a league, when we reach the mountains, and go up a steep ascent, where heaps of rocks very difficult to get over alarm the most intrepid travellers. We ascend along the side of a precipice, at the foot of which the waves of the sea break; a simple wall crumbling with age is the only protection we have against being precipitated to the bottom.

We now descend and enter into a sort of deep unequal valley, filled with cuts and surrounded with steep rocky mountains covered with shrubs; it is tilled and planted with carob-trees. We leave this through the straits of a frightful passage, where the mountains approach each other, where great stones that have rolled down lie on

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the road, where the irregularities of the broken rocks fatigue and bruise the horses' feet, and on which we cannot proceed without being violently jolted: thus we arrive at the foot of an eminence on which is situated the small and ancient town of Oropesa, which was the birth-place of an excellent critic of our days, Bartolomé Marti, dean of the chapter of the college of Alicant, better known under the name of Dean Marti. We still see a part of the ancient fortifications. Opposite this eminence we find a Venta, which we reach after travelling a league and a quarter from Benicasi. The mountains we have just passed over are covered with rosemary, thyme, lavender and juniper trees.

The road improves, the country expands, the mountains become more distant to the left, they disappear on the right; we enter on an extensive plain that terminates in the sea, which we approach and proceed along the shore for near a mile, at the distance of three hundred paces from it. We leave this again, and pass over land almost uncultivated, with carob trees scattered over it. At one league from Oropesa, we pass a house that has the appearance of a farm, and in a quarter of an hour after reach the Venta de la Sanieta. We find from

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time to time parts of the road, very stony, rough and rugged, and after a league and a quarter we arrive at the village of Torreblanca.

Here the road, becomes still worse: at about half a league we cross a gulley where there is scarcely ever any water, but it is dangerous in times of rain. After travelling two leagues and a half, we enter a fine vale, where all the ground is cultivated and covered with trees; and a half league farther we arrive at Alcala de Chivert.

Alcala de Chivert is a very little town, very close, badly paved, and still worse built; the streets are almost all hilly, narrow, and winding, the houses low and disagreeable. It has neither squares, nor fountains; every one is a labourer or a peasant. It has a parish church, a convent of Franciscans, and a population of about 3600 inhabitants. It belongs to the military order of Montesa.

The parish church of this town is of a modern construction; it was finished in 1766.

The façade of the church has three portals; the two lateral smaller ones have each two columns of the Doric order at the first story, and two pilasters of the Ionic at the second. The middle one has three stories; the first of four fluted columns; the second of two Corinthian fluted columns; the third of two small pilasters, between which a window in medallion is surmounted by an attic almost triangular, ornamented with urns and borders. These portals are of a good architecture; some of their statues, though tolerably well executed, are lost

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in the immensity of the facade, the surface of which, without ornament, is so large that it appears naked.

The church is large. It has a body and two aisles very light, the latter are covered with bad paintings in fresco. The dome, well shaped and lighted, is ornamented with ionic pilasters: the gilding is slightly put on. The grand altar is ornamented with some ancient pictures which have merit.

In 1792, a great tower was built near this church, it is of free-stone and intended for a steeple; it is one hundred and ten feet in circumference.

On leaving Alcala de Chivert the road is not bad as far as Vinaros for the space of six leagues, except some places where it is stony or runs over bare rock, which is some times steep; there are, however, very few ascents and descents.

We continue to go through the same vale for a length of time, then enter a cultivated plain. After travelling three quarters of a league we go by the side of a little village on the right, and soon after cross a deep gulley. Three quarters of a league farther on we see the sea, which we do not quit again, but it is hidden for some time by the trees. The country here becomes much finer, the cultivation richer, and more taken care of, the trees are very numerous, consisting of olives, carobs, mulberries, and figs: travelling through these for a quarter of a mile we arrive at Benicarlo.

Benicarlo is a small town, situated near the sea, in a rich and fertile country, which is wa-

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tered by water-carts. It is surrounded by walls and has a fosse, an old castle and faubourgs; there are some tolerably straight streets in it, but they are narrow, dirty, and ill built; the houses have a miserable appearance, though one should think this town ought to be rich from the productions of the country. It has one parish church, one convent of Franciscan monks, situated without the walls, and one hospital; but it has no fountains. Its population is about 8200 inhabitants, among whom there are a great many fishermen.

In leaving this town, we pass a gulley, the bottom of which is full of pebbles. The road becomes handsomer; runs along close to the sea; goes through a fertile and smiling country, and brings us to Vinaroz. It is a league and a half from Benicarlo to this town; we enter it by a faubourg, the street of which would be handsome if it were better built.

Vinaroz is a small town situated on the river Servol and on the sea side, almost at the end of the plain we have just passed. There are some remains of its gates and ancient walls; the streets, paved with sharp pebbles, are by no means handsome; there are some, however, that are tolerably broad and straight; but they have no handsome buildings: very few of the houses have a tolerable appearance; it has one parish church,

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ornamented with marble pilastres, two convents of Franciscan and Grand Augustin Monks, a hospital, a port-captain, and a population of about 5000 persons.

The Duke of Vendome died of an apoplexy in this town on the 11th of June 1712. Philip V. had his ashes removed to the tomb of the kings at the Escurial.

The commerce of Vinaroz has greatly decreased since that town was included in the number that are forbidden importation. It has a dock, in which only vessels of thirty, forty or fifty tons are built. The coast is covered with a great many chalops and small vessels; there is however neither port nor bay; it is an open coast. The principal export consists of brandies.

We scarcely leave Vinaroz, when we ford the Servol, which is almost always dry: the road becomes stony; the country is equally so, and the cultivation neglected. Half a league farther we pass a gulley which is generally dry; another half league on, a square tower, which marks the limits of the kingdom of Valencia, is seen to the right; we pass the small river Conia over a handsome bridge of one arch, and enter Catalonia.

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STATISTICAL ABSTRACT RELATIVE TO THE KINGDOM OF VALENCIA.

Population. The fineness of the climate, the fertility of the lands, and the lighter, but more juicy food, of the south provinces of Europe, giving more play to the vital force than in the north, is more favourable to population. The number of inhabitants of the kingdom of Valencia consequently annually increases. It is true that there are many places that are now almost deserts, which were formerly inhabited: this is owing to the wars, proscriptions, and political banishments of the beginning of the eighteenth century, which considerably reduced the population; but since that time it has increased more than double what it was then. The following table contains the proof of it; it is drawn up from calculations made by the king's command.

	INHABITANTS.
In 1718	318,850
1761 and 1762	702,640
In 1768	716,886
In 1788 and 1789	783,084
In 1795	932,150
In this number are	
Priests	173
Secular Priests	2,748
Monks	5,311
Nuns	1,688
Nobles	1,076
Advocates	790
Writers	776
Students	5,493
Servants	18,963

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Agriculture. Cultivation here is the best attended to, and the richest in Spain; the country consists of orchards, fields, and gardens; the land yields its gifts in profusion, and is embellished by the hand of the industrious cultivator. The whole is fertile, and contains a germ of active vegetation which easily developes itself. The plains are superb, the valleys delightful, and even the mountains enrich the labourer.

Nothing can equal the beauty of the plains of this province. We have already described that which surrounds the town of Valencia to an extent of twenty-five leagues. There are others less considerable, but which almost equal it in beauty and richness; the finest are those of Alicant, and Orihuela. The former is two leagues long and one broad; the latter is not so large, but is more fertile, and richer. Those of Murviedro, Benicarlo, and Vinaroz would appear very handsome if we had not first seen the former ones: that of Liria is still handsomer than the last; but none of these small plains can be compared to that of Gandia: it is a league and a half in diameter; it is enclosed on one side by an almost circular chain of little mountains, and terminated on the other side by low lands, the bottom of which is a black earth that produces, with as much ease as abundance, trees of every species, and fruits, and pulse of all kinds; there are more than thirty villages, the houses of which are confounded with the trees which surround them, forming a picturesque appearance; the whole announces ease, and has an air of felicity.

The valleys and dales are equally fertile; and the productions are in great abundance. We travel with pleasure through the dales of Axpe and Elda, the valleys of Bunol, Alcala de Chivert, Fuente de la Higuera, that which is between this last and the Venta de Alcudieta, and that above Alberico, and which is watered by the Jucar.

The country is not so handsome as we approach the mountains, and the soil becomes less fertile; there are a tolerable number of valleys which display riches and beauties,

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not commonly found in many plains; the mountains themselves are often covered with verdure, embellished by trees of different species, and enriched by their productions: we travel those near Andilla, near Segorbe, and several others with pleasure. Those between the village Ibi and Alicant to the north-east of that town, are covered with oak, turpentine, mastic, custard-apple, juniper, laudanum, cestus, rosemary, and low firs.

The Valencian carries cultivation to the highest part of the mountains; in some places he makes excavations, in others sustains the lands by means of little low walls which he builds, by laying stones one on another. A storm often destroys his work in an instant; but his activity and patience soon replace it.

The watering of the lands of the kingdom of Valencia contributes to their fertility. The Valencians turn the waters that flow on every side to the greatest advantage. Eighteen large rivers run through this province, and all furnish branches more or less considerable for irrigation. The Guadalaviar and Jucar fertilize the plain of Valencia; the Segura, the fields of Orihuela; and the others, the different territories through which they run.

There remain several canals which were the work of the Moors, and which are preserved with care. The modern Valencians are no less industrious than their predecessors the Moors in the art of making canals and conducting water, even to the highest places; they make basons, reservoirs, and dams, in which they collect water to be distributed where ever it is wanted. There is one at a mile and a half from Valencia, which we cannot but admire. The great bason or Panthano, made in the mountains for watering the Huerta of Alicant is no less remarkable.

This almost continual watering would gradually deprive the land of the saline particles necessary to vegetation, if the Valencians did not prevent it by the care they take to have them well manured. They make use of the dung from the

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stables, the sweepings of the houses and streets; they collect the excrement of animals, and pieces of earth which they think contains the least excremental parts; by this means the roads are spoiled; they make holes, at the least, very incommodious, as they are never repaired.

The Valencians never leave the earth at rest; they plough the fields nine or ten times a year, and are sowing every month. Thus in the Huertas, and in general all the country to the east and south-west, the lands yield four or five harvests, the meadows are mowed nine or ten times, the mulberry trees are stript from three to four, and yet are always covered with new leaves; the soil never wears out, but is constantly presenting its productions.

Wines. There are many vines in the valley above Elda, at Murviedro and in its environs, at Segorbe, Liria, Quarta, Chiva, Cheste, Benigani, Cosentana, Muro in the county of Carlet, at Porta Celi, Puch, Benabites, Nulez, Valera, Benifayrò, Castello de la Plana, Cuartel; or Chinches, Ara Chisti, Santa Coloma, Benicarlo, &c. The wine, though not of a very superior quality, is full bodied and makes a good brandy; that of Murviedro is esteemed the best.

About 3,500,000 cantaras* are made annually upon an average. The cantara is commonly sold for 5 Valencian reals, 1*s.* 3*d.* sterling, the whole giving a produce of 17,500,000 Valencian reals, (218,750*l.* sterling).

Among these wines we distinguish those of la Torre, a dependence on the chartruese de Porta Celi; those of Mas de Santo-Domingo, Mas de Perales, and, above all, those called Rancio. The last are common ones, but of a superior quality, the age of which add to their goodness: proprietors have a long range of pipes each of a different year; there are some of sixty, some of eighty, and some of a hundred years old; they always draw the wine from the first pipe, which is the

* A Valencian cantara contains about three gallons English wine measure, the former being 775, and the latter 231 cubic inches.

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eldest; they fill it from the second, that from the third, and so on successively to the last, which they fill with new wine. These wines are not in great abundance; nevertheless they send some to several parts of Spain; the prices differ according to their age; the inferior are sold for 20 reals of vellon each cantara, and the superior for 60 reals.

The territory of Alicant produces a rich wine known throughout Europe; there are both red and white; the red is most in request, and the dearest; the price varies, according to its quality, from 20 reals of vellon to 120 reals, each cantara. The wine is distinguished according to five plants: the wine of Muscatelle, Forcallade, Blanquet, Panell, and Monastelle. The wine of Alicant comes from Muscatelle; that of Malvoisie comes from Muscatelle, Forcallade, and Blanquet. The annual exportation is computed on an average at 3,500 measures of 100 cantaras each.

A kind of syrup, which they call *arrope*, is likewise made here from sweet wine, which they place for half an hour over a low fire, and add to it one-twelfth of calcareous earth. The liquor is clarified and boiled till it comes to the consistence of syrup: they preserve it in pitchers, to be used when wanted.

Besides the vineyards there are a great many treillises in the kingdom of Valencia, which yield excellent and very large grapes; there are some bunches which weigh six, eight, ten, and even fourteen pounds.

Raisins. Another advantage is derived from the vine: raisins are made, principally towards Liria, Denia, in the county of Carlet, and in all the part near the sea; the quantity is computed to be about 400,000 quintals annually. They are generally sold for about two piastres the quintal; which amount to a sum of 12,500*l.* sterling.

It is proper to explain here the two different methods used in Spain to dry the grapes. In the kingdom of Valencia they make a kind of lie with the ashes of rosemary and vine branches,

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to which they add a quart of slake lime. This lie is heated, and a vessel full of holes containing the grapes is put into it. When the bunches are in the state desired, they are generally carried to naked rocks, where they are spread on beds of the field artimesia, and are turned every two or three days till they are dry. In the kingdom of Granada, particularly towards Malaga, they are simply dried in the sun without any other preparation. The former having a more pleasing rind, but a less mellow substance; the skin of the latter are not so sugary, but their substance has a much greater relish; therefore the raisins of Malaga are preferred by foreigners, and are sold at a higher price; to this their quality may likewise contribute, they are naturally larger and more delicate than those of the kingdom of Valencia.

Oil. There are a great many olive trees here; some of which in several parts of this province were planted in the time of the Moors: they are principally cultivated in the territories of Coscentayna, Albayda, in the county of Carlet, at Elche, Valera, Porta-Celi, Gatova, Marines, Olla, Liria, Puch, Ara-Christi, Cuartell, Murviedro, Benabites, Santa-Coloma, Chinches, Benifrayo, Nulez, Benicarlo, Bunol, Chiva, in the dales of Oxpe and Elda, in the valley which is between Fuente de la Higuera, and the venta of Alcudieta, in the fields and valleys between Elda and Villena, &c. The olives are good, but the oil is generally sharp; which is owing to the manner in which it is made. The olives are gathered too late, so that they are already spoiled, and are carried to the press without being picked. With a little care, the oil might be made equal to that of Provence. There are some cantons in which it is tolerably good. The quantity made, annually, on an average, is computed at 350,000 arobas of 36 Valencian pounds (110,200 cwt. avoirdupoise). The mean price for a Valencian aroba is three piastres or pezos, equal to 32 reals of vellon, which amounts to 1,050,000 piastres or pezos.

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The cultivation of olives might be of more importance, and the trade in oil more advantageous to the province, if it were not prohibited to be exported from the kingdom, except when the price falls to 20 reals of vellon the aroba, which rarely happens; for the Marseilles soap boilers buy it chiefly on account of its acidity.

Mulberry Trees and Silk. The mulberry-trees are of great importance; the fields of Valencia are covered with them, particularly in the environs of that town, in the dale of Elda, in the county of Carlet, in almost all the places situated on the sea coast, &c. There are white mulberry-trees, which are lopped every two years.

The leaves of these trees serve as nourishment to silk worms, which are raised almost every where in the kingdom of Valencia: Aljemesi, Alzira, Carcajente, Castello of San-Felipe, the county of Carlet, Ondasuar, Gandia, Denia, Orihuela, and all the villages near the sea are places in which the greatest quantity is raised.

The silk made from them, is the finest in Spain; it would be equal to the best and finest silks of Europe, if the Valencians, in spite of the vivacity of their imagination, did not obstinately persist in their old routine in the skeining: for in the skein they put an undetermined number of threads. The government has hired a man the most experienced in this kind of work; but in vain does he give his instructions, the manufacturers do not the less continue their bad customs. The quantity of silk which is annually wound, is on an average, about 1,500,000 pounds of 12 Valencian ounces; (1,312,500 pounds of 16 ounces avoirdupoise); it is commonly sold raw for 50 reals of vellon a Valencian pound, which gives a total of 75,000,000 reals of vellon (731,250*l.* sterling).

Almond Trees. The climate and soil of the kingdom of Valencia are very favourable to the cultivation of the almond tree; but the Valencians attend very little to it. There

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are, however, some trees in different parts of this province, from which they gather annually, on an average, about 4,500 quintals of almonds. The price of them is commonly 35 pezos or 525 reals of vellon the load, which is two quintals and a half. The whole produce of almonds returns 945,000 reals of vellon (9843*l.* 15*s.* sterling).

At Ilbe, a village six leagues north-east of Alicant, there is a particular method for cultivating almond trees. There are a great number of them in the country belonging to this village; they are almost all ingrafted on wild almond trees. It appears that this process brings the fruit to perfection; the almonds they produce are superior to all others in Spain; they have a smooth shell, and can be kept for several years, whereas the others are spoiled in a little time.

Dried Figs. There are a great many fig-trees in the territories near the sea, and in that of Elche; there are not so many in the other parts of this province. The people eat and sell ripe figs; but they dry about 28,000 quintals: they are of a tolerable quality. The dried figs are commonly sold for eight reals of vellon the aroba, that is to say, thirty-two reals the quintal, which make 896,000 reals of vellon (5533*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* sterling).

Palms and Dates. The palm-trees grow in different parts of the kingdom of Valencia; they chiefly abound in the territory of Elche, where there are whole forests of them. The inhabitants of this country chiefly apply themselves to the cultivation of this tree, which is their principal wealth. We will here give some details on this subject.

The palm-trees, as we know, grow from date stones. The planters transplant these shrubs at the third or fourth year into a slimy soil, at the distance of six feet from one another, taking care always to place one male palm-tree between two female ones, and to water them twice a week. After they have been planted ten years, and are grown forty and even sixty fee

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high, they begin to bear fruit, which are distinguished into sweet fruits or candits, and bitter or âcrelets.

On account of their height, the palm-trees give very little shade; and as their roots are very short, the cultivators intermingle the plants of pulse and pot-herbs with them.

In other parts of the kingdom of Valencia there are a great many dwarf palm-trees. The inhabitants eat the roots, which resemble the taste of an artichoke. Cattle are also fed upon them.

The women and children of Villa-Nueva, Silla, Senija, and other places, make mat-work of their leaves and stocks, which are tolerably lucrative.

The cultivation of the palm-tree requires constant great labour: the cultivator is obliged to climb up the rough and waving stem to the top of the tree, in order to examine the flowers and fruit, and turn them towards the sun. This work, which is often repeated, is not so dangerous, compared to that for making the barren branches profitable. In spring and during the month of August, they tie all the branches in a single bundle, which they cover with spart: to make this bundle, the cultivator is obliged to leap, as it were, over the flexible branches of the tree, to surround and unite them with a cord. This first operation done, he places a ladder at the bottom of the tree, on which he ascends, that he may make a second band; he then places his ladder on this second band, and again ascends, and ties the top with a third cord: his bundle formed, he throws away his instruments, replaces his ladder by a gradation contrary to the former, and descends from band to band to the stock, from which he slides rapidly to the bottom.

The fruit which they gather from them are commonly consumed in Spain; they also export some to France. But the most considerable produce is that of the branches of the male trees, which are sent to Italy, where they are used at the ceremony of Palm Sunday; they are also made into mats, baskets,

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chairs, and other utensils. This commerce, and that of the fruits, return annually about 600,000 reals (6250*l.* sterling).

Carobs. Carob-trees are to be found almost every wherein the kingdom of Valencia; there are whole woods of them of an immense extent, often on the most indifferent soil. They produce a very great quantity of fruit.

Fruits. There are a great many fruit-trees every where throughout this province; they grow in the plains, valleys, and on the mountains; the greatest number are in the environs of Valencia, Orihuela, and Segorbe. Fruits of all kinds are gathered here; oranges and lemons are a very important and considerable articles by which a great quantity of money is made.

Aloes. The cultivation of aloes is not attended to; they grow naturally on the sides of the roads, and in the interior of the lands. Their filaments are wrought. It is an object of little value.

Sugar Canes. Formerly sugar canes were cultivated in the southern part of the kingdom of Valencia; they were given up on the introduction of the West India sugar, and are now only attended to in the duchy of Gandia and the places near it, where the canes succeed very well. The method of cultivating is as follows; the planters divide the field into two parallel parts, and each part into small beds intersected by parallel and transverse furrows at a foot distance; they plant in these furrows, at five inches asunder, joints of the canes of the preceding year, from eight to ten inches long, and having four eyes; they water them when necessary. When they are about fifteen inches high, the canes ought to be earthed up with the mould of the bed; this work is continued till crop time, which commences in the month of November. This crop is a kind of diversion, during which every one is gay, not unattended with a degree of intoxication produced by the juice of the cane. The crop is disposed of to Provençal merchants.

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Spart. Spart is gathered in some places, particularly in the territory of Liria. It is an object of little importance.

Barilla, soda, aqua-azul, and salicornia. Barilla, soda, aqua-azul, and salicornia, are productions of great importance in Spain. Barilla is the *salsola soda* of Linnæus; there are five kinds of soda, the *salsola kali*, the *chenopodium maritimum*, the *chenopodium abbum*, the *salsola vermicularis*, and the *salsola rosacea*; the aqua-azul is the *mesembry anthemum*, and the salicornia the *salicornæa europea*. Barilla is used in the composition of mirrors, soda in making soap, and aqua-azul and the salicornia in making common glasses.

Barilla, soda, and aqua-azul, are cultivated in the kingdom of Valencia; the salicornia grows wild. It is principally found in the territories of Alicant, Elche, and Albatana.

They gather annually, on an average, about 100,000 quintals of barilla, 25,000 of soda, and 4000 of aqua-azul; the quantity of salicornia is undetermined. Their common price, by the quintal, is 50 reals of vellon for barilla, 40 reals of vellon for soda, and 24 reals of vellon for aqua-azul. Which gives a total of 5,000,000 reals for barilla (52,083*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* sterling), 1,000,000 reals for soda (10,416*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* sterling), and 96,000 reals for aqua-azul (1000*l.* sterling): the whole amounting to 8,096,000 reals (63,500*l.* sterling).

Barilla gives the cultivator a great deal of trouble. A kind of beetle often lays its eggs in the root of this plant; and foxes, which are very dainty mouthed, would eat up in one night a whole field of barilla, which often obliges the peasants to pass the nights in hunting that animal, in order to preserve their harvest.

Flax. The territory of Orihuela is almost the only one of the kingdom of Valencia in which flax is grown. The quantity gathered is considerable enough for the extent cultivated, but it is not an important object. They gather annually

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about 8000 quintals of it; the common price is 200 reals of vellon the quintal, which gives a total of 1,600,000 reals (16,666*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* sterling).

Hemp. Hemp is cultivated throughout the plain of Valencia, in that of Castello de la Plana, and the neighbouring territories; it is of a superior quality. They gather annually, on an average, about 300,000 arobas, or 75,000 Valencian quintals, which is equal to 65,625 hundred weight avoirdupoise. The common price is three pezos the quintal, that is to say, 45 reals of vellon, which gives a total of 900,000 pezos, or 13,500,000 reals (140,625*l.* sterling.)

Oats. Oats are very little cultivated in the kingdom of Valencia; they are an object scarcely attended to.

Barley. Barley is cultivated here, particularly in the territories of Elche and Alicant. It is of little importance; a small quantity, however, is exported.

Maize. Maize is also cultivated; and is in great abundance every where.

Wheat. Wheat is cultivated in a great many places of this province; but not enough for its consumption. There is annually, on an average, about 500,000 or 600,000 loads, which, at the rate of 144 reals of vellon the load, gives a produce of about 37,600,000 reals of vellon (912,500*l.* sterling).

Rice. Rice is one of the important productions of the kingdom of Valencia. It is cultivated in great quantities at San-Felipe, Alzira, Sueca, Sollana, Alberife, Castello de la Plana, Cullera, in several other places in the plain, and generally in the neighbourhood of rivers, along the sea coasts, and to the south of Valencia, from Gandia to Catarrojo. They gather annually, on an average, about 140,000 loads, of ten arobas or two quintals and a half each, which makes 1,470,000 arobas or 350,000 quintals in Valencian pounds, which is equal to 306,250 hundred weight avoirdupoise. The common price is

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150 reals of vellon (or 1*l.* 11*s.* 3*d.* sterling) the load; which gives 60 reals (or 12*s.* 6*d.* sterling) the quintal. The total of which is about 1,400,000 pezos or 21,000,000 reals of vellon (218,750*l.* sterling).

The following is the manner of cultivating rice in the kingdom of Valencia: the earth is prepared by being turned up, but it is left even and without furrows; the rice is then sown, covered with water upwards of a foot above its surface (the rice grows in the water), and left so till harvest time; the reapers then cut it wading up to their knees in water: they put the sheaves on drays which follow them; it is then trodden on by horses or mules, which serve the purposes of threshing. The rice remains covered with its husk, to disengage it from which they pass it through a mill; these mills are the same as corn ones, but the mill-stone is covered with a coating of cork.

Honey. A small quantity of honey is made in the kingdom of Valencia; it is of little importance. That gathered on the mountains which are to the north-east of Alicant, between this town and Ibi, is the most delicate; it is in such estimation, that it is sent for a great way, even from Italy: it is probable that it owes its quality to the aromatic plants, especially rosemary, with which those mountains are covered.

Wool. There are not many flocks of sheep in this province; the quantity of wool they give is still less considerable; it is even insufficient to the wants of the country. It is reduced, on an average, to about 20,000 quintals annually, which is worth 3,200,000 reals of vellon (33,333*l.* sterling), at the rate of 160 reals (or 1*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.*) sterling) the quintal.

Salt. Salt may be counted among the productions of the kingdom of Valencia. It is taken from salt-pits near Elche and Villena. It is enough for the wants of the province, and about 6000 tons are annually exported of it, which give a sum of 888,000 reals of vellon (9250*l.* sterling).

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Kermès. Kermes is gathered from the tree called *quercus ilex, quercus cocifera;* it is a kind of worm known properly by the name *coccus* (the gall insect), of which the ancients thought so much, which they used it in dying flesh colour, and which we should still prize, if the discovery of America had not procured us cochineal. It is found on the mountains where the villages of las Aguas and the mineral waters of Buzot are situated, at a quarter of a league from Alicant. The peasants gather it, and sell it in the town for 50 reals (10*s.* 5*d.* sterling) the pound. They gather about 200 quintals annually, which give a product of 1,000,000 reals (10,416*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* sterling).

TABLE

OF THE PRODUCTIONS OF THE KINGDOM OF VALENCIA.

Articles.	Quantity.	Price in reals of Vellon.	AMOUNT. Reals of Vellon.	AMOUNT. Sterling. £.	s.	d.
Wine	3,500,000 cantar.	7½	26,250,000	273,437	10	0
Wine of Alicant			800,000	8,333	6	8
Raisons	40,000 quint.	30	1,200,000	12,500	0	0
Dried Figs	28,000 quint.	32	896,000	9,333	6	8
Oil	350,000 arobas	45	15,750,000	164,062	10	0
Almonds	4,500 quint.	210	945,000	9,854	3	4
Dates and Palms			600,000	6,250	0	0
Silk	1,500,000 pounds	50	75,000,000	781,250	0	0
Wool	20,000 quint.	160	3,200,000	33,333	6	8
Barilla	100,000 quint.	50				
Kali	25,000 quint.	40	6,096,000	63,500	0	0
Aqua-Azul	4,000 quint.	24				
Flax	8,000 quint.	200	1,600,000	16,666	13	4
Hemp	75,000 quint.	180	13,500,000	140,625	0	0
Rice	140,000 load	150	21,000,000	218,750	0	0
Kermes	200 quint	5000	1,000,000	10,416	13	4
Salt	6,000 ton		888,000	9,250	0	0
Wheat	600,000 load	144	86,400,000	900,000	0	0
		Total	255,125,000	2,647,592	10	0

There are several articles left out in this table, the amount of which I have not been able to ascertain, as carobs, sugar-

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canes, fruits, spart, kelp, barley, oats, maize, honey. Though the amount of these commodities separately is trifling, taken together it must be considerable.

Notwithstanding the fertility of the soil, the variety and multiplicity of it productions, the activity and industry of the inhabitants, riches are very unequally divided. The people possess scarcely any thing: they easily manage to live, because they subsist upon the productions which grow to their hands, or buy them at a low price: but they do not in any degree share in the opulence of the country which they inhabit; the farmers are in narrow circumstances, many even poor; this is in consequence of the high rents of farms, which arise from the great number of persons applying for them; the almost certain effect of a population which is perhaps too numerous.

Notwithstanding its wealth, the kingdom of Valencia is not able to support itself without the assistance of its neighbours; it has neither oxen nor a sufficient number of sheep; the corn which it grows is only enough for part of the year; it makes a great quantity of wine, but the greatest part of it is converted into brandy; the remainder is not sufficient for its consumption.

Manufactures. The kingdom of Valencia procures little wool, yet there are five manufactories of woollens and coarse and fine cloths; they are at Morella, Enguera, Bocayrente, Ontiniente, and Alcoy. The small woollen stuffs are principally made at Enguera; nothing but the coarsest cloths are made at Morella, Bocayrente, and Ontiniente. The manufactory at Alcoy is the most considerable; the cloths, though finer, are generally of an inferior quality; the woof of them is thick, with little nap upon it; the finest are scarcely superior to the beautiful cloths of Carcussona.

There are three manufactories of earthen ware at Onda, Manisez, and Alcora. We have already noticed that of Manisez in the account of the environs of Valencia. That of Al-

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cora is the largest and most important; it belongs to the family of Aranda; its earthen-ware is tolerably fine, though it is not of the first quality; porcelain is also made in it, but in small quantities, and it is common. This manufactory might have become more considerable, but the count d'Aranda had entrusted the direction of it to an overseer completely unacquainted with the business, consequently his ignorance has been injurious to the progress of the establishment. I do not know whether this has been changed since the death of the count.

In Valencia there are three manufactories of earthen ware tiles, called azulejos: they have been mentioned in the description of that town; they are also made at Manisez, but they are inferior to those of Valencia.

This province contains seven paper manufactories, one at Ontiniente, one at Bocayrente, one at Altura, between Segorbe and the Carthusian monastery of Val-de-Christo, one at San-Felipe, one at Bunol, and two at Alcoy. The five first are the least important; altogether they only employ about forty-five mills; those at Alcoy are the most considerable; in 1799 they had forty-eight mills at work. The paper which is made at these manufactories is badly beaten, soft, and without consistency.

Coarse or household linen is made at several places; at Valencia, Torrento, Castello de la Plana, and San-Felipe; very little is made in the two first towns, more in the third, but a great quantity at San-Felipe. There is no establishment at large for this manufacture; the weavers, dispersed and detached, work less on their own account than for individuals, who furnish them with the raw materials.

Sailcloth and rigging are made at Grao near Valencia, and at Castello de la Plana; this manufacture is not considerable. At Grao there is also a dock-yard where vessels are built only of about fifty ton, the same as at Vinaroz.

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Bridles for horses are made almost every where with the filaments of aloes; this is an inconsiderable article.

At Elche and at Valencia there are several places for currying leathers, which, however, are not sent out of the country.

Galloon, laces, and gold and silver fringe, are made at Valencia; these are inconsiderable, and used in the country.

There is a manufactory of potash, or vegetable alkali, at Valencia, established in 1790.

There is another manufactory in this town for wire and needles, which is not considerable.

In the kingdom of Valencia two sorts of soap are made; one black and soft, which serves for washing, and one hard and mottled white and blue, which is used for shaving: the former is made every where, even in the houses of individuals; there are two manufactories of the latter, one at Alcoy, the other at Elche.

Spart is worked here; it is made into mats, carpets, coverings for plants, ropes, and shoes; this is frequently the work of the peasants when they have nothing else to do.

The brandy distilleries are objects of the first importance in the kingdom of Valencia. There are a great number of them, particularly at Torrento, Liria, Pedralva, Murviedro, Xerica, Segorbe, Altura, Aldaya, Chiva, la Olleria, Cheste, Benigani, Ontiniente, in the county of Carlet, &c. In 1791, it exported about 500,000 cantaras of brandy, which gave a return of upwards of a hundred and twenty-five thousand pounds. The price of it is generally from 20 to 25 reals of vellon (from 4*s*. 2*d*. to 5*s*. 5*d*.) the cantara, which is equal to ten pints and a half Paris measure.

The silk manufactories are still more important than the distilleries of brandy; they are extremely numerous in the kingdom of Valencia. Those of the town of that name have been already mentioned; they occupy upwards of three thousand six hundred looms for silk stuffs, stockings, galloon, and

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silk ribbonds; and a great number of little articles of lace are made there, as retz, redezillas, handkerchiefs, silk sashes, &c. There are besides two hundred and forty-two looms for silk stuffs in several other places in this province. These looms consume annually a million pounds of silk, and occupy twenty-eight thousand persons, twenty-two thousand of whom are in the town of Valencia alone.

Silk is twisted in different places in the kingdom of Valencia, for which purpose machines and mills are established at Gandia, San-Felipe, Carcajente, Orihuela, and Valencia; the most important establishment of this kind is at Milanesa, near the last mentioned town; nevertheless, these machines are not able to furnish as much as the manufactures of the country require; part of the silk is sent to Priego and Toledo in Andalusia, whence it is returned into the kingdom of Valencia to be worked.

Commerce. The commerce of the kingdom of Valencia, after having been very flourishing, was almost annihilated by the civil wars: it had, notwithstanding, resumed its ancient vigour; but the shutting of the ports of the continent to the English must necessarily be prejudicial to it; for, independent of the interior of Spain, its commodities were carried to Portugal, Holland, France, England, and the Spanish colonies of America.

The exports of this province consist in the productions of its soil, and in its manufactures.

Part of the silk stuffs which are made here is consumed in the country; but the greatest part is carried to Madrid, and into some provinces of Spain; the remainder is exported to Portugal and Spanish America.

The fine cloths are hardly ever sent out of the country; part of the coarse cloths are used in it also, and the rest is sent to America for clothing the troops.

The earthen ware of Onda and that of Manisez remain in the country: that of Alcoy is sent into Catalonia, Aragon, the

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kingdom of Murcia and Castile: it is almost the only one which is to be found in Madrid.

The paper serves for the consumption of the country, but the greater part is sent into New Castile, into the kingdom of Murcia, and to Cadiz, where it is shipped for America.

The painted earthen-ware tiles, or azulejos, are used in the country, but only a small part of them; a great many are sent into the interior of Spain as well as to Cadiz, where they are shipped for Spanish America; and to Marseilles, whence they are conveyed into Africa.

Soap, bridles for horses, linens, galloon, lace, and gold and silver fringe, are not sent out of the province.

Nails, wire, and needles are sent to different provinces of Spain.

Spart, worked into ropes, coverings for plants, mats, carpets, is used partly in this province, partly in Catalonia and New Castile. A great quantity of it was formerly exported raw to the different French ports of the Mediterranean, particularly to Marseilles, but the exportation was prohibited in 1783; permissions are sometimes given to individuals to export a specified quantity but it must be worked. The intention of this condition is just, as it produces another employment for the people, a new branch of industry, and another currency in the province. The spart thus worked goes to the coast of Provence.

Part of the oranges, lemons, and other fruits are consumed in the country; the surplus is sent into New Castile, particularly to Madrid.

Palms are sent all over Spain and into Italy; they are considerable articles of exportation.

Wool is exported from Alicant, but it is not the produce of the kingdom of Valencia; it is sent thither from the neighbouring provinces.

Forty thousand quintals of grapes are dried upon an average every year; about 2,000 quintals are consumed in the

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province; nearly 4,000 are sent into Catalonia and Castile; 6,000 into France, and the remainder to England. This exportation produces 1,140,000 reals of vellon (11,875*l.* sterling).

Nearly 4,500 quintals of almonds are gathered every year; about 500 are consumed in the province, about 1000 quintals are exported to Catalonia and Castile, and 3000 to Marseilles and to Holland. The common price being 210 reals of vellon the quintal (2*l.* 3*s.* 9*d.*), the exportation into the interior produces 210,000 real of vellon (2,187*l.* 10*s.*) and the foreign exportation 630,000 reals of vellon (6,541*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.*)

Barilla, kali, aqua-azul, and kelp, are exported into France, England, Genoa, and Venice. Upon an average 100,000 quintals of barilla, 25,000 of kali, and 4000 of aqua-azul are sent out yearly. The port of Alicant alone exports 150,000 quintals of barilla; but a great part comes from the kingdom of Murcia. These articles produce a total of 5,000,000 reals (52,083*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.*) for the barilla; 1,000,000 reals (10,416*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.*) for the kali; and 96,000 reals (1,000*l.*) for the aqua-azul.

About 28,000 quintals of figs are dried, almost 8,000 of which are consumed in the country, the other 20,000 are sent out of it; 4,000 into the Castiles and Catalonia, and 16,000 into England and Holland. A product results of 640,000 reals of vellon (6,666*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.*)

Dates are sent to France, England, Holland, and the north of Europe. This article, including the commerce of palms, amounts to 600,000 reals (6,250*l.*)

Upon an average, about 3,500,000 cantaras of wine are made yearly. This quantity would be sufficient for the consumption of the province, and would furnish besides a considerable branch of exportation; but that so great a quantity of it is made into brandy, that there does not remain enough for the use of the inhabitants, who are obliged to import some from Aragon. However, about 1,200,000 cantaras of it were exported, which went to Cadiz to be sent to Spanish Ame-

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rica, as well as to France, to Cette, Bourdeaux, Rouen, and Havre-de-Grace, and to England; hence results a product of 9,120,000 reals of vellon (95,000*l.*) The wines of Murviedro are preferred for exportation into France, from their being very full-bodied and high-coloured. The sweet wines of Alicant are sent to France, England, and the north of Europe; the quantity annually exported amounts to 800,000 reals of vellon (8,333*l.* 6*s.*)

The greatest part of the brandy made in the kingdom of Valencia is sent into England and Holland; but that of France is preferred, as being less acrid, and both mellower and pleasanter. In 1791 five hundred thousand cantaras were exported, which produced upwards of 12,000,000 reals (125,000*l.*)

The harvest of rice, upon an average, produces 120,000 loads; 40,000 loads are consumed in the country, the other 80,000 are sent to the two Castiles, La Mancha, Aragon, Andalusia, Catalonia, and Majorca: this article amounts to 12,800,000 reals of vellon (133,333*l.* 6*s.*)

There is no foreign exportation of hemp. A third of the quantity produced serves for the consumption of the country; the other two-thirds, which one year with another amount to about 50,000 quintals, are sent into the interior of Spain, and are consumed in the arsenal of the royal navy; they produce 9,000,000 reals of vellon (93,750*l.*)

A great many impediments are thrown in the way of the exportation of silk; it is only allowed for six months after the harvest. If in that period the national manufacturers want it, they are at liberty to take it from the merchants who have bought it, on reimbursing them the purchase-money, with six per cent. interest; the consequence is, that the merchants, uncertain whether they will be allowed to export the silk which they have purchased, no longer take any foreign commissions for it, and thus this branch of exportation has fallen. Besides this, a duty has been laid upon the silk sent out of the kingdom of nine reals of vellon and one quartillo

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(1*s.* 11½*d.* sterling) on every pound, of twelve Valencian ounces, which is almost a fifth of its value: this is another obstacle to the exportation of it. A very small quantity, twisted and dyed, is sent into Portugal.

Generally 1,500,000 pounds of silk are made annually; of which 1,100,000 are consumed in the province, and 400,000 pounds are exported to Talavera de la Reyna, Requina, Toledo, Granada, Seville, Priego, and Catalonia. From this results a product of 20,000,000 reals (208,333*l.* 6*s.*) Part of this silk is twisted and dyed: It costs

Raw silk	50 reals	£10*s.* 5*d.* sterling.
For twisting it	8	1 8
For dying it with common colours	3	0 7½
	61	12*s.* 8½*d.*

About 200 quintals of kermes are gathered; nearly 20 quintals remain in the country; 40 quintals of it are sent into the other provinces of Spain where there are manufactories, and 40 into France. This exportation produces 900,000 reals.

Six thousand tons of salt are sent to England, Holland, and the north; which produce 888,000 reals of vellon (9250*l.*)

STATEMENT OF THE EXPORTATION OF THE KINGDOM OF VALENCIA.

EXPORTATION OUT OF SPAIN.

ARTICLES OF COMMERCE.	QUANTITY.	VALUE. REALS OF VELLON.	£.	s.	d.
Wine	1,200,000 cantar.	9,120,000	95,000	0	0
Wine of Alicant		800,000	8,333	6	8
Raisons	34,000 quin.	1,020,000	10,625	0	0
Dried Figs	16,000 quin.	512,000	5,333	6	8
Almonds	3,000 quin.	630,000	6,562	10	0
Dates and Palms		600,000	6,250	0	0
Barilla	100,000 quin.				
Kali	25,000 quin.	1,524,000	15,875	0	0
Anqua-azul	4,000 quin.				
Kermes	140 quin.	700,000	7,291	13	4
Salt	6,000 tons.	888,000	9,250	0	0
Brandy	500,000 cantar.	12,000,000	125,000	0	0
	TOTAL.—	27,794,000	289,520	16	8

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EXPORTATION INTO THE INTERIOR OF SPAIN.

ARTICLES OF COMMERCE.	QUANTITY.	VALUE. REALS OF VELLON.	£.	s. d.
Raisins	4,000 quintals	120,000	1,250	0 0
Almonds	1.000 quint.	210 000	2,187	10 0
Oil	88,000 arobas	3,900,000	40,625	0 0
Rice	80,000 loads	12,800,000	133,333	6 8
Hemp	50,000 quint.	9,000,000	93,750	0 0
Silk	400,000 pounds	20,000,000	208,333	6 8
Dried Figs	4,000 quint.	128,000	1,333	6 8
Kermes	40 quint.	200,000	2,083	6 8
	TOTAL	46,358,000	482,895	16 8
Foreign Commerce		27,794,000	289,520	16 8
Interior Commerce		46,358,000	482,895	16 8
General Total		74,152,000	772,416	13 4

If to this sum be added the produce of the manufactures and of the exportation of Spart, and of fruits, for which I have no data of calculation, the amount will be found very considerable. The single article of silks goes a great way towards it; about eleven hundred thousand pounds of silk are worked; the productions of two hundred thousand pounds remain in the country; the merchandise arising from the working of nine hundred thousand pounds are sent out of it; this quantity of silk is worth 54,000,000 reals of vellon £.571,875), namely 45,000,000 reals (£.468,750) for the raw silk, 7,200,000 reals (£.75,000) for twisting it, and 2,700,000, (£.28,125) for dying it with common colours. I have heard the sum total of this exportation stated to be 180,000,000 reals, (£.1,875,000) and it appears that this calculation is not exaggerated: there

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are persons who make it amount to 240,000,000 reals, (£.2,500,000) which is perhaps a little too much.

The kingdom of Valencia has likewise an importation, but very much inferior to its exportation. It receives wine from Aragon and Catalonia; woollens, fine cloths, trinkets, some silks, millinery, and wheat from France; ironmongery from France and England; spices from Holland and France; linens from France, Silesia and Switzerland; scents, perfumes, pomatums from France; salt butter from Holland; and salt fish and herrings from England and Holland.

This province carries on this trade without any harbour; it has but a few roads, one of which only is good; its coast is very dangerous, particularly when the wind blows violently from the east. The trade is carried on through Alicant, Cullera, Grao, Santa Pola, Gandia, Denia and Vinaroz.

Alicant has a very safe good road, which large vessels can easily enter: dried fruits, barilla, kali, wine, and woollens are exported from it; the last are not the produce of the kingdom of Valencia. It receives linens from Switzerland and Silesia, spices from Holland and France, ironmongery from England and France, camlets, woollens, fine cloths, trinkets, and linens from France. It is the principal commercial town of the kingdom of Valencia, and the residence of the consuls of other nations. A great deal of business is transacted in it, and before the war with England, the flags of all the nations of Europe might be seen flying there almost all the year round.

Cullera has only a bad road, where there is very little importation; its exportation is confined to rice, which is sent to the island of Majorca and Andalusia.

Grao has neither road nor harbour; it has nothing but a flat shore, where vessels are unloaded, in a very inconvenient manner. In 1792, a place of debarkation was begun to be built, for which the merchants raised a subscrip-

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tion; the bank of St. Carlos advanced five millions of reals, (£.52,083 6*s.* 8*d.*), and the government also furnished funds; but in a twelvemonth the works were neglected and even given up, and bad weather has so damaged them that the success of the undertaking is become problematical. The trade of Grao, both exports and imports, is all carried on with France; it receives linens, woollens, ironmongery, trinkets, spices and corn, and returns wines, dried fruits, barilla, and kali, nearly to the amount of half the importations; brandy is likewise exported to Holland and the north of Europe. The amount of the exportation in 1773 was twelve millions of reals (£.125,000).

Santa Pola is a small port for shelter, and has no commerce.

Gandia, Denia, and Vinaroz, are merely open shores without either harbours or roads. Their importation was tolerably considerable, but it has ceased for some years, their custom house having been suppressed; at present they export brandy, and some trifling articles.

Roads, inns, and modes of carriage. If we except the three cantons of Biscay, there is not a province in Spain, the roads of which are so good as those of the kingdom of Valencia. We have given a description of the road which leads from the gate of Almanza to the capital of this province, through an extent of thirteen leagues and a quarter; it continues from Valencia to Castello de la Plana, a distance of ten leagues and a half, and the rich fields through which it lies all the way contribute to embellish it.

The roads of the interior are by no means so good; yet many of them are not absolutely bad: that which leads from Valencia to Manisez, that from the same town to Grao, that from Orihuela to Fuente de la Higuera, here and there excepted, that from Alcala de Chivert to Vinaroz, and a great part of that which leads from Valencia into Aragon, are tolerably good; that from Valencia to Liria, Andella, Xerica, and Segorbe, though most frequently over mountains, is not bad.

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The roads have been taken care of in this province; but there are not a sufficient number of bridges: we pass several little rivers and gulleys, which in rainy seasons become impetuous torrents over which there are no bridges; there is none over the river Elda, which is crossed three times, in the road from Orihuela to Valencia; there is none over the river Canales, in the road from Valencia to Segorbe; there is none over the river Servol, nor over the Llombay, nor the Jucar, on the road from Madrid to Valencia; it is true, it would be difficult to build one across the Jucar, as that river sometimes swells so much as to overflow half a league of ground.

A custom, perhaps improperly allowed, considerably contributes to the breaking up of the roads of the kingdom of Valencia, particularly the cross-roads. People continually go along these roads picking up the excrements of animals, to convert them into manure; at the same time they raise light layers of earth, which they believe to be impregnated with salt, proper for fertilizing the soil: the consequence is that the roads become uneven, excavations are formed in them, and they grow worse and worse every day.

The great road which crosses the kingdom of Valencia, from the gate of Almanza to the frontiers of Catalonia, is full of inns. There are several in the town of Valencia, amongst which the Golden Lion and the Four Nations, are tolerably good ones. The other inns of this road are often called *ventas*; but we find tolerable provisions in almost all, and we are well treated. The venta of Alcudieta and the venta del Rey are good and very neat: we are tolerably well off at Murviedro, and Vinaroz, and still better at Castello de la Plana; but the accommodations are very bad at Alcala de Chivert and Benicasi.

We are not so well accommodated in the inns on the cross roads; there are a great many, and they are generally bad: yet there is no want of provisions, which are abundant almost every where. The venta de Fuente de la Higuera is tolerably good: every thing is to be found in it. At Elche,

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though rather a large and populous town, they are all bad; Orihuela, an episcopal town, of a considerable population has not a single inn: even the *posadas*, of this town are but middling; but there are very capital inns at Alicant, even better than those of Valencia. The prices are every where moderate: in the large inns we pay two piecettes (1*s.* 8*d.*) a dinner at the *table d'hôte*.

The kingdom of Valencia nearly vies with Catalonia in the beauty and goodness of its carriages: there are a great many coaches and calashes, which are drawn by good mules, as are the carts, which are large and well made. Most carriages are drawn by mules; yet sometimes asses are used, but for trifling services. Covered waggons regularly set out once or twice a week from Valencia, Alicant, and Orihuela for Madrid, loaded with provisions for that town. There are some also for the purpose of conveying travellers, whose fortune will not permit them to take more convenient carriages. Covered waggons also set out from Valencia at stated periods for Barcelona; they carry merchandise and travellers; these belong to the Catalans.

Natural History. The natural history of the kingdom of Valencia is not yet well known. At first it does not appear very interesting. The animal kingdom presents nothing which merits attention. There are no mines worked, except some iron ones.

Amongst the animals of this province, we are only able to particularize the Kermes, or gall insect, a worm which is taken from the tree called quercus-coccifera, and which gives the flesh colour: it is found upon the mountains near Alicant: it has been already mentioned in speaking of the agriculture of the kingdom of Valencia.

The vegetable kingdom is here very rich and important: the Abbé Cavanillas, a botanist already known by some interesting works, is employed in describing the rare plants and

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flowers that are found in Valencia, and particularly upon the mountains of Mariola, Pena-Golasa, Mongo, and Aytana. A floral of these has been published, containing a great variety of genera and species.

The mineral kingdom presents some objects worthy the attention of naturalists. We may mention the following as the most important:

A mine of copper in sheets of slate, full of white and red mica, near the Carthusian monastery of Val-de-Christo.

Iron mines between Biar and Villena, to the south east of Biar, near Fredas and la Pobla, near Forcal, Castelfort, in the Sierra Espadan, near Canaret, Antilla, Ayodar, and between Rotava and Marchuquera.

Blood-stones on the Sierra Gitana, four leagues from Alicant.

Veins of red-lead in the calcareous rocks upon the mountain of Alcoray, two leagues from Alicant, and upon the mountains between Valencia and San-Felipe.

A mine of virgin mercury among calcareous rocks, in a hard white and calcareous soil, at the foot of a steep mountain, near San-Felipe. It was given up a long time ago, but was worked again in 1793; it produced from a quintal of mineral, thirteen pounds of mercury, twenty-one pounds of copper, eighteen of sulphur, and of arsenic, and a hundred and twenty-eighth part of silver. But it is said that it is again given up.

Another mine of virgin mercury in separate globules, but very abundant, scattered in a clayey and drossy soil, which crosses the town of Valencia from east to west two feet in depth; it passes under the house of the marquis de Dos Aguas, in the square of Villarasa, where a well was dug about the middle of the eighteenth century to prove its existence.

A mine of cobalt, near Ayodar; but it has been neglected.

A mine of alum, near Castel-Favi.

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Of ochre, between Villena and Biar, to the south-east of the latter place.

Of amber in small quantities, in the mountain of Alcoray, fifteen feet deep.

Of small coloured crystals, with two very regular points in the form of diamonds, at the foot and to the east of a high mountain, two leagues south-west of Alicant. Some of them are white, some red and some yellow; the red and yellow ones are hyacinths.

Of Madraporite, in the mountain Alcoray, and in a steep mountain near San-Felipe, above the mine of virgin mercury which has already been mentioned.

Several petrified sea substances, above the same mine of virgin mercury.

Some singular fossils on the mountain Alcoray. Some half petrified shells on the top of a rock upon which the castle of Alicant is built.

Oysters, and other bivalve fossil shells on the Sierra Gitana, and on the mountain of St. Julian; the latter are inclosed in a bed of gypsum surrounded with pieces of slate.

Several other petrified sea substances, as oyster-shells, muscles, tellina, buccina, and ursina, in the environs of Alicant: some are in a rock of lime, others in banks of calcareous stone, mixed with fine sand, others in banks of round stones upon beds of yellow, red and grey marl.

Spiral land shells, in a cave in the mountain of Tufal.

Chalk in abundance, at Picacente, two leagues from Valencia.

Coloured gypsum, resembling red lead, upon the mountain Alcoray, two leagues from Alicant.

A beautiful quarry of fine red gypsum with white veins, at the foot of the mountain of Tural, some leagues from Valencia, as well as on the mountain Alcoray.

Banks of gypsum of different colours, in the environs of Alicant, under banks of round stones, in which some fossil

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sea substances are said to have been found; they are of grey, yellow, red, black, chesnut and rose colour.

A great deal of silex half way up the calcareous mountains, between Ibi and Biar; it is made into gun flints.

There are some peculiarities on the mountain on which the castle of Alicant is situated. Besides the fossil shells which are on the highest part, and which I have already mentioned, there are on the east side some fragments of *agate*, enclosed in calcareous rocks, and some red silex, waved; and on the west side, towards the town, some *false asbestos*, and a little lower down some banks of *tripoli*.

Half a league to the north-east of the same town, there are some fields covered with a great quantity of those stones often called lenticular stones, and which are the true nummulari; the country people call them the Magician's money.

The kingdom of Valencia contains some quarries of the finest marble. These are, first to the east of San-Felipe; 2d. at Barcheta, near that town; 3d. at Buscarrò, which is not far from it; 4th. on a very high mountain three leagues north-east of the same town; 5th. on mount Sagarra, near Segorbe; 6th. at Ninerola, three leagues from Valencia; 7th. on an eminence on the side of the village of Naguera, three leagues from the same town. The marble of Ninerola is white; it was used in making the statues and bass-reliefs in the house of Dos Aguas at Valencia. That at three leagues north-east of San-Felipe, forms the entire mass of the mountain; it is of four kinds; white, rose colour, yellow, and a straw colour or paler yellow. Those of mount Segarra were famous in the times of the Romans, who dug very fine ones from it. Those of Naguera are of a dark red, full of very fine black capillary veins; they are very handsome, very hard, and susceptible of a fine polish.

There are also some large veins of alabaster inclosed in white calcareous rocks, between Villena and Biar, to the south-east of this last place, and a great quantity of superb white

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alabaster at two leagues from Alicant, in a cavern, of which we shall presently speak.

There are several caverns in this province; but only two merit attention; one is in the mountain of Tufal, some leagues from Valencia, the other two from Alicant. The former is particularly remarkable for its great extent; it contains many spiral land shells. The latter is full of handsome white stalactites, which are formed by drops of water filtering through stones and calcareous earth: there is also in this a most beautiful alabaster.

The Sierra Gitana, situated at four leagues from Alicant, merits particular attention. It forms a high chain of calcareous rocks, of various heights; in some places it is of a calcareous earth saturated with vitriol; in others, of a metallic marble, and in others again, of an earth loaded with gypsum. This mountain is subject to frequent earthquakes.

There are several salt-pits in the kingdom of Valencia; particularly near Elche, Alicant, and Villena; the first is tolerably large; the second, called de la Mata, is almost at the sea side, with which however it has no communication; the last is two leagues in circumference. A great quantity of salt is obtained by evaporation; the water is left, to be exhaled by the sun, the salt crystalizes, is gathered, and made into enormous masses. The pit, near Alicant, supplies the most.

Rock salt is likewise found in Valencia. A detached hill, four leagues from the Salt-pit at Villena, is one mass of rock salt, covered with a bed of gypsum of different colours. There is also a very good salt-pit on the chain of mountains which form the boundaries towards Aragon, near the Sierra of Vellida and that of Cubilla, between the sources of the two little rivers which run to Andilla and Bexis.

At the bottom of the mountain on which the monastery of Esperanza is situated, near Segorbe, a fountain issues, the

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water of which is said to have a petrifying quality: it has already been mentioned.

Mineral waters are not very numerous in the kingdom of Valencia; there are only three cold and two thermal springs. The three first are near Navajas, at Villa-Vieja near Nules, and at Sacatoba in the territory of Bunol. This is called the fountain of S t Vincent. The two hot springs are not far from Alicant; one, called Fuente-Caliente, is two leagues south-west of the town, at the foot and to the east of a high mountain of lime stone; the other is four leagues from the town, in the territory of Buzot, at the foot of the Sierra Gitana; there are some baths in this last; it raises Farenheit's thermometer to 104°. It is pretended, but without any proof, that it contains iron, and Glauber salt. None of these waters have been properly analized.

Arts and Sciences. The learned men whom the kingdom of Valencia has produced, owed for a long time their success entirely to themselves; they found in their country no establishment consecrated to the cultivation of the sciences; there were only some spiritless schools, episcopal and monastic, where nothing was taught but scholastic theology, Aristotle's philosophy, and, at times, the canon law.

It was not till the fifteenth century that universities began to be established. That of Valencia was founded by S. Vincent Ferrier in 1411, and received the royal sanction in 1449. A second was soon afterwards established at Orihuela, and Francis Borgia founded one at Gandia in 1549.

In these three universities theology, the canon and civil law, medicine, and philosophy were taught. There were a great many professors: that of Gandia, which was the smallest, had eighteen; four for theology, two for the canon and five for the civil law, four for medicine, and three for philosophy.

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Education in these three universities, however, was incomplete and insufficient; their professors were ill paid, and often ill chosen; their schools had all the defects of the other universities of Spain. Nothing was taught in them but scholastic theology, Galenic medicine, and paripatetic philosophy. Time was lost in disputing on nothing; subtilties, verbosity, and sophistry took place of learning, eloquence, and truth.

At length these inconveniences were felt. The university of Gandia was suppressed in the eighteenth century, and the schools of that of Orihuela permitted to subsist in their ancient form; but the faculty of medicine was entirely suppressed. The government directed its attention chiefly to the university of Valencia, whose revenues were augmented. Several useful establishments have been made there; a new form of interior administration has been given to it, and new chairs erected. These changes were made in 1786 by Charles III. We think it the more important to show the actual state of this university, as it is the only one in Spain whose form can become useful to the progress of the sciences.

There are now fifty-eight professors in the university of Valencia, two for the Latin grammar, one for poetry and oratory, two for Greek, one for Hebrew, six for philosophy, two for the mathematics, one for mechanics and natural philosophy, one for astronomy, eleven for medicine, seven for the civil law, five for the canon law, one for ecclesiastical discipline, and eighteen for theology. They are all for life, with the exception of three of philosophy, five of medicine, two of the civil law, one of the canon, and seven of theology, who are only substitutes to the others: their functions constitute a kind of noviciate, by which they may improve their learning, and render themselves able to fill in course of time the places of the professors for life. All these chairs are given the ablest men.

The form of the lessons of these professors, and the things

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they are to teach, have been fixed by a regulation issued from royal authority.

The course of philosophy is to last three years. In the first year, the professors teach logic and ontology; in the second, metaphysics, moral philosophy, and the elements of the mathematics; and in the third, natural philosophy: they are to follow in their lessons Jacquier's Institutions of Philosophy.

The course of medicine is to last five years. It is entrusted to eleven professors, one for chemistry and botany, one for anatomy, three for the theory of medicine, and one for practical medicine: these are all for life; one triennial for botany, another triennial for anatomy, and three others, also triennial, for the theory of medicine. The students begin their studies with botany and chemistry, then go to the theory of medicine and anatomy, and lastly attend the lessons of clinical medicine,

The professor of chemistry and botany is to teach chemistry during the autumn and winter twice a day, and every day an hour and a half each time: in the morning, chemistry relative to mines, arts, and manufactures, according to the principles of Baumé; and in the afternoon, medicinal chemistry according to the precepts of Macquer. In spring, he lectures in the botanic garden on the virtues of plants, according to Murray.

The professors of anatomy teach anatomy during the whole year, from plates, skeletons, and artificial pieces of anatomy; and give, in the time of vacation only, thirty lessons on dead bodies, always according to Heister's Anatomy.

The professors of theoretical medicine, in turn, explain, in the the course of three years, physiology and pathology, according to Boerhaave; the materia medica, according to Tessari; the Aphorisms of Hippocrates and Boerhaave; and the description of diseases from Home's Principia Medicinæ: it is recommended to them, in their explanations, to make use of the

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works of Van-Swieten and other good authors, chiefly national ones.

The professor of clinical medicine is to give his lessons in the hospital, morning and evening, and then carry his pupils, the number of which is confined to twenty, to visit the sick. He is to open the dead bodies, and to make an exact journal of his observations. This mode is very well conceived; and the known execution of it must be of the greatest utility.

It is the part of one of the professors of the civil law to teach the law of nature and of nations, taking for the basis of his lessons the Institutionis juris naturæ et gentium of J. B. Alsaici. The others are to explain successively, in the space of four years, the History of the Roman Jurisprudence, of Ch. Ant. Martini; the Institutes of Justinian, with the commentaries of Vinarius; the Syntagma Antiquitatum Romanorum of the same; the Pandects, according to Heineccius; and the civil law of the crown of Castile, according to Asso y Manuel.

The lessons of the canon law have for their basis the works Lackics and Van-Espen: wha regards countries unconnected with Spain, is left out; the decrees of the council of Trent are added, and the ecclesiastical laws peculiar to this kingdom, conformably to the decrees of those councils, concordats, and national laws.

One of the professors of theology explains de Locis Theologis, according to Juenia, Nina, and Cano; another, Ecclesiastical History, according to Laurent Berti; four others the Master of the Sentences, with the commentaries of Estius; three others morals, according to Genetto and the books of Wisdom; and two others the Holy Scriptures.

The lessons on ecclesiastical discipline have for their basis the Christian Antiquities of Selvagius; those on mathematics the works of la Caille, with the notes of Maria; and those of astronomy the works of the same la Caille: these last ought to be on spherical trigonometry, and geometrical astro-

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nomy. Besides these lessons, which the professor is to give in the schools, there is one twice a week, in the night time, at the observatory, to explain the use of the instruments, and to make astronomical observations in the presence of the pupils.

The lessons of mechanics and natural philosophy are to be given on statics, hydrostatics, hydrodinamics, optics, catoptrics, dioptrics, and perspective: they are given for two hours every day; the first hour is devoted to explanations, and the second to experiments.

The masters are excited to emulation by rewards. The professors, besides their appointments, enjoy a pension of a thousand reals of vellon (10*l.* 8*s.* 4*d.* sterling) after twelve years professorship, and double that after twenty. Pensions of a thousand reals are likewise given to any professor who shall publish three good dissertations on the subject he teaches, and three thousand reals to any author of a book thought worthy of being taught in the schools. Prizes for the pupils are also fixed.

This university has a library, which it owes to the generosity of the abbey Bayer. It does not contain more than fifteen thousand volumes, among which there are some good works, principally on medicine. It is superintended by a librarian and two under librarians, and is open to the public every day, except on holidays, for two hours in the morning, and two in the afternoon: it is very much frequented.

This is a noble establishment. It has masters of every kind. Education is easy, and freed from a part of the prejudices which have long paralized the schools of Spain. The yoke of the peripatetic philosophy has been thrown off; the form employed is something similar to that of the schools of other nations. A school of clinical medicine has been added to it, the plan of which is admirably conceived. The greatest advantages may be expected from it; but it still wants some things necessary to render instruction completely useful.

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Courses of chemistry, botany, natural philosophy, and astronomy are given; but there are very few machines and instruments: there is no laboratory, no botanical garden, and no observatory, except some rooms in the building of the university consecrated to astronomical observations. The king has settled the funds for the construction and acquisition of these articles; but the smallness of these funds leaves no hope of their soon possessing them.

It appears too that the professors are very much restrained in the choice of the books from which they are to give their lessons: they are also deprived of the assistance of those which might contain a more clear and certain doctrine, new views and discoveries which would overturn the principles established in those given to them as guides. The professor of chemistry, for example, is obliged to follow Baumé in chemistry applied to the arts, and Maquier in medicinal chemistry; chemistry has, however, since the publication of the works of those chemists, been brought to greater perfection; it is enriched by many modern discoveries, and different principles are now followed to what those books contain. The works of Murray have been given as a guide to the professor of botany, who is not enjoined to make use of any of the books which contain the methods most generally followed hitherto, neither those of Tournefort, of Linnæus, nor of Jussieu. The physiology and pathology of Boerhaave, which have for a long time been almost forgotten, are directed to be taught. In determining the subjects for the theme of the lessons of the professor of natural philosophy, they have deprived him of the liberty of showing the important discoveries and the fine modern experiments on air and fire. Genius must not be restrained; in confining it, it becomes cramped, and is prevented from taking that spring which alone can accelerate the progress of the sciences.

Too much is required of some of the professors: the professor of chemistry is to give lessons and perform experiments

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twice a day; they have imposed a task on him which the most profound and experienced chemist could not perform: some of the experiments require three or four days preparation; how can the time from morning to evening suffice? their lectures of course can be but superficial and of little use. The memory of the pupil, who is not equal to such forced labour, is also overburdened. Not more than three lessons a week have ever been given on this science; and it is as much as the greatest chemists can do. The same fault with regard to the course of natural philosophy and astronomy has been committed. Another inconvenience is the smallness of the appointments of the professors; the most considerable are seven thousand reals of vellon (72*l.* 18*s.* 4*d.* sterling). At this price it is impossible to procure good masters. It must nevertheless be allowed, that this establishment is still in its infancy: it is much to have taken the first step; time will show these inconveniences, and the same zeal that directed the first regulations, will prompt to correct whatever is defective.

There are likewise some monastic schools in the kingdom of Valencia, in which philosophy and theology are taught; but the professors, absolutely independent, follow at will the routine which they have drawn up according to their masters, or which they found already established in their cloisters. By this means, these schools have all the inconveniences of the others of Spain, and have not the advantages of those of the university of Valencia.

The library of that university is not the only one that offers its resources to the public; the town of Valencia contains another much more considerable, that of the archbishopric: it has been spoken of in the description of that town.

The arts have for a long time been held in honour in Valencia. There are some academies now in this town, and some schools, in which one can instruct and improve one's self. I could only repeat here what I have said of them in the description of that town.

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The kingdom of Valencia is one of the provinces of Spain which have produced the most distinguished men in the sciences, literature, and the arts. It would be useless to repeat here the long list of those whom the single town of Valencia has produced; suffice it to give a list of those born in the different other places of this province.

The theologians have been the most numerous. John Valero of Segorbe, Ferdinand de Loazez of Alicant, Francis Josser of Castello de la Plana, Christobal Moreno of Mojente, and Juan Mingues of Xativa, were born in the sixteenth century; Loazez was at once a profound theologian and great lawyer. The following century produced Francisco Guttieres and Jerome Tamarit of Xativa, and Didax Mas and Juan-Gilles Trench of Villareal; Andres Capero, a famous preacher, whose sermons were published in 1670, was born at Castello de la Plana; Anastasio Vivez of Rocamora, bishop of Segorbe, who died in 1674, and who published the Synodus Segorbiensis, was born at Orihuela.

Francisco Franco, a physician, known in the sixteenth century for his writings on the medicinal use of ice and on contagious diseases, was born at Xativa. Bartolomé Marti of Oropesa, a judicious critic, better known by the name of Dean Marti, on account of his being dean of the chapter of Alicant, and George Juan of Elche, who was at once a good sailor, an exact geometrician, and a profound astronomer, and who passed the equator with the members of the royal academy of sciences of Paris, to ascertain the true figure of the earth, were born in the eighteenth century.

The historians of the sixteenth century, Francis Diago and Martin de Viciana, were, the former of Vivel, and the latter of Buriana; this last wrote the chronology of the kingdom of Valencia. The historians of the following century, Gaspard Garcia and Francisco Martinez, were of Orihuela: the latter wrote the history of his country. The Arab Mahomed ben Abdallamen, who was both poet and historian, and who died

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at Tremen in 1213, was born at Alicant in the twelfth century; he wrote the Annals of Spain. The poets Vincent Gasco de Siurana, Antonio Ximen, and Jacobo Beltram were born, the first at Alzira in the fourteenth century, the second at Segorbe in the fifteenth, and the last at Xativa in the sixteenth. The rhetorician Andres Sampere was born at Alcoy in 1499, and the orator Damien Cavallas of Orihuela, flourished towards the year 1530. Francisco Juan Mas, who directed his attention to different branches of literature with success, was born at Villareal, at the beginning of the sixteenth century.

Among the artists we have to mention Gaspard San-Marti, a monk of the Great Carmelites, born at Lucena, who was a sculptor, and died in 1644; and Ignacio Vergara, an able statuary, born at Alendia de Calet, and who died in 1761. A brother of the latter, Francis Vergara, likewise distinguished himself in painting; Vincent Victoria, a canon of San-Felipe, Josef Garzias, and above all Josef de Ribera, better known under the famous name of Espagnolet, who was born at Xativa, and who died in 1656, had all followed with success the same profession in the seventeenth century.

Character, Manners, Customs, Dress, and Language. "The Valencians are gay, ingenious, studious, light, fond of dancing, balls, and all the exercises that require activity. . . . . Some of them travel through Spain and gain a livelihood by dancing*." This is the portrait drawn of the Valencians by a Spaniard, Murillo; it contains in a few words the character of these people. They are equally gay throughout the province, equally swayed by pleasure, fond of songs, music, and dancing, readily joining in all the exercises that require activity of body. They love work, assiduously and unremittingly

* Los Valencianos son gente jovial, alegre, ingeniosa, aplicada á las letras, ligeros, dados á danzas, bayles y otras pruevas de ligereza, fáciles..... Algunos andan por España ganando su vida danzando.—Murillo.

applying themselves to it; but letting no opportunity escape of gratifying their taste for pleasure.

The description I have given of the manners of the town of Valencia is common to the inhabitants of the province, respect being had to the relative differences, the distance of the places, and to the state and fortune of individuals.

The Valencians are justly reputed to be the best dancers in Spain. Many are constantly going into the different provinces of this monarchy, where their dances and ballets attract great crowds, and who return to their own country to enjoy the money they have gained by their agility. There are some who even leave Spain, and spread themselves through foreign kingdoms.

They have dances peculiar to themselves; among the rest, there are two that are executed in the form of a ballet, in which they chiefly show their activity and precision. In the first they place a great many eggs on the ground pretty close to one another, and dance round them; they appear every moment to be going to tread on them, and to crush them under their feet; but in spite of the variety and celerity of the steps they dance, they never touch them: in the other the dancers are each provided with a small stick about two feet and a half long; they strike on one another's sticks, and thus mark all the measures of the music; they never cease striking in all their movements, in advancing, retreating, and in all the possible positions: and they never lose the measure; they all strike at the same moment; they sometimes accelerate their blows, and redouble them with quickness; but always return to the measure, and their blows fall in perfect time.

They are equally practised and expert in equilibriums; they sometimes unite in several rows, forming a base on which other persons are placed, on those others in a less number, and thus successively one above the other till the mass is terminated in a point of two and even one man, all

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in different positions, but combined with such precision as to preserve a perfect equilibrium; this mass, which has the appearance of a walking tower, is sometimes considerably higher than the first stories of the houses. They carry their agility to their work: the peasant with his spade in his hand, the mechanic at his work or in his shop, is constantly active.

The Valencians are accused of being as light in mind as in body; of being inconstant, and little susceptible of durable attachments. I have already answered this imputation in the description of the town of Valencia.

They are generally ingenious and expert, easily entering into the spirit of whatever they undertake: they pursue the sciences with success, and their province has furnished many learned men distinguished in various branches; but their genius more naturally turns to the arts, in which they are successful. The industry of the people is chiefly directed to agriculture. We have seen in a preceding part, that it would not be easy to carry cultivation, the conveyance of water, and the irrigation of lands to a greater degree of perfection.

The Valencians have an easiness of disposition which renders their address open, unconstrained, and agreeable, influences their connections and affections, and makes their society pleasing and amiable; but, in consequence of this easiness, they take prejudices as readily as prepossessions; they withdraw their affections as easily as they grant them; they change their connections with as great facility as they form them; and take disgust to things and persons as promptly as they become fond of them.

The people in the towns are civilized; the peasants are tolerably gentle in their manners, and appear of a peaceable disposition; but on occasion they discover a ferocity we should not have thought them capable of. Their quarrels are always attended with bloodshed, and a very little thing serves to provoke them. The pleasure of revenge is irresistible, and a gun, a dagger, a sword, or the instruments of

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husbandry are the weapons with which they satisfy it: they fight with a degree of rage, that may be termed barbarism. The treachery which sometimes accompanies their revenge easily leads them to assassination. It is well known, that for a long time there were many mercenary assassins in the kingdom of Valencia, who, for small sums, charged themselves with the vengeance of others. There are none of these now; but murders are still frequent: I have known six perpetrated at Valencia in five months; in a small town, at no great distance from it, there were fourteen in eighteen months. A counsellor of the criminal court of the Royal Audience assured me, that there was nearly one a day committed in the province. The prisons consequently are always full: and though there are ten or twelve at Valencia, they are often insufficient.

The example of the capital influences the towns of the second order, where luxury is also carried to a very great height: the dress is the same as in the rest of Spain; but the great round hats and cloaks are much less frequent. The peasants of Valencia are habited like those of Murcia.

The Valencians are very fond of the festivals of the church, which are celebrated with solemnity, we may even say with luxury. They are also very fond of processions: there is no province in Spain in which there are more, or where the mixture of profane things, and additions foreign to religion, render them more ridiculous than in any other place in christendom. The priests and monks have more influence and credit in Valencia than in the rest of the Spanish monarchy; the order of St. Francis particularly, enjoys a great preponderance.

Though in the towns every body talks Spanish, properly so called, that is to say Castilian, the people of Valencia have a language peculiar to themselves, called the *Valencian Tongue*. It is the ancient tongue of Languedoc and Provence, which the French carried into Catalonia at the time they conquered

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that province: four hundred years afterwards the Catalans and French, under the standards of the kings of Aragon, carried it into the kingdom of Valencia, where it is better preserved than in Catalonia, and retains almost its ancient purity: its terminations and pronunciation, very harsh in the mouth of a Catalan, are very soft in that of a Valencian, and particularly the women; it is almost the same language as that spoken in Catalonia, but the Valencians pronounce it with a delicacy that renders it softer and more harmonious.

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ESTREMADURA.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS ON THIS PROVINCE.

Estremadura is one of the largest provinces of Spain; it would perhaps be also one of the most fertile if it were not the least populous, and the least cultivated. It is inclosed between the kingdom of Leon, Old and New Castile, Andalusia, and Portugal. Its length is fifty leagues from north to south, and its breadth forty leagues from east to west. The kingdom of Leon is to the north and north-east, New Castile to the east, the kingdom of Seville in Andalusia to the south and south-east, and the three provinces of Estremadura, Beyra, and Entre-Trajo-et-Guadiana in Portugal to the west.

This province, in ancient days, attracted the attention of the Romans: the fineness of its climate, and the fertility of its soil, rendered it valuable in their eyes; they regarded it as a land of promise. The Moors, on whom the name of barbarians has been unjustly lavished,

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had the same predilection for it; they knew its value, and flocked in crowds to people it. Their expulsion was the epoch of the almost total depopulation of this province; and from that time it has remained in a state which renders it of little use to Spain.

Estremadura contains three bishoprics, Badajoz, Plasencia, and Coria; three cathedral chapters in the same towns, thirty military commanderies, four hundred and fifteen parishes, a hundred and seventy-two convents, thirty-one hospitals, two asylums, two colleges for the education of youth, seven cities, two hundred and twenty-eight small towns, ninety-four villages, one grand military government, eleven particular military governments, one intendant at Badajoz, and a royal audience at Cacerez. The principal towns are Badajoz, which is the capital; Plasencia, Coria, Mérida, Truxillo, Xeras de los Cavalleros, Llerena, Almatana, Zafra, Cacerez, Albuquerque, and Olivença.

It has two navigable rivers, the Tagus and the Guadiana; and eighteen others, namely, the Alagon, the Cuyar, the Sabor, the Savar, the Allegrette, the Alamonte, the Guyar, the Navazo, the Naluenga, the Lentrin, the Rivillo, the Guadajira or Guadajiera, the Caya, the Mutachel, the Guadarranque, the Gevara, the Albarragena, and the Abrilongo. Here we see

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very elevated mountains, some of which are considerable branches of the Sierra Constantina, in the centre of the kingdom of Seville, which it crosses in a direction from the north-east to the south, projecting also ramifications into the kingdom of Cordova, and uniting to the north with the Sierra Morena. Here too we distinguish the Sierra de Bejar, and the Sierra de Guadalupe, the latter of which is remarkable for its elevation, its immense extent, and the great number of branches which it stretches into different parts of Estremadura.

This province has always formed a part of the kingdom of Leon; it was taken by the Moors at the same time with that kingdom: being afterwards united to that of Castile, it became in the course of time a part of the Spanish monarchy.

Road from the frontiers of New Castile by Talavera de la Reyna, to the frontiers of Portugal, 38 leagues three quarters.

	LEAGUES.
La Calzada de Oropesa to Naval Moral (a village)	4
Espadanal (a village)	1
Almaraz (a town)	1
The Tagus (a river) Bridge of Almaraz	¾
Venta Nueva	1
Casas del Puerta	1

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	LEAGUES.
Zaraycejo (a town) / Alamonte (a river and bridge)	2
Puerto de Miravete (some houses)	1½
Truxillo (a town)	2
Puerto de Santa-Cruz	2
The Perates (a torrent or gulley without a bridge)	
Miojadas (a village) / The Burdalo, (a river and bridge)	3
Venta de la Aguia	2
San-Pedro (a village)	3
Truxillano (a village)	2
Mérida (a town)	1
Badajoz (a town)* / The Guadiana (a river and bridge)	9
The Caya (a river) / Frontiers of Portugal	1½

Soon after leaving Calzada de Oropesa, the last village of New Castile, we enter Estremadura, and the country over which we are about to travel is in many places fallow, in many more laid out in pasture, and in some cultivated, but generally in a feeble and languid manner, is still less furnished with trees than Old Castile, and frequently intersected by mountains more or less lofty.

After proceeding four leagues without meeting any habitation, we come to Naval Moral, a wretched village; and in another league to

* Two different roads, each of nine leagues, lead from Mérida to Badajoz; they will be each separately described.

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Espadañal, another equally miserable village. A league and a half farther we enter Almaraz, a small town, the population of which hardly amounts to one thousand inhabitants; it has a parish church, the portal of which is ornamented with four Doric columns. At three quarters of a league from this town we pass the Tagus by a bridge named after Almaraz: it was built towards the middle of the sixteenth century, a time when the Spanish monarchy was in the most brilliant state. In beauty and solidity it may be compared with the best works of the Romans. It rests on either side on rocks, and is supported by enormous pillars resembling very lofty towers. The one in the centre is also built on a rock, is higher than the others, and terminates on both sides of the bridge with large semi-circular projections forming a sort of square. The bridge has two enormous arches; the one, towards the north, through which the river generally runs, is sixty-nine feet high, and a hundred and fifty feet wide; the other is sixty-six feet high, and a hundred and nineteen feet wide: in the whole, it is twenty-five feet and a half wide, five hundred and eighty in length, and a hundred and thirty-four high. On one side we see the arms of the town of Plasencia, and on the other the king's, beneath which there is an inscription.

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A league from the bridge of Almaraz, which ought rather to be called Plasencia, as we are informed by the inscription that it was built by that town in the reign of Charles V. we find the Venta Nueva, and at a like distance las Casas del Puerto, an assemblage of houses. We then traverse mountains, and at the end of two leagues arrive at Xaraycejo or Jaraycejo, a small and very ancient town, which was formerly inhabited by six hundred families, and which now can hardly reckon nine hundred inhabitants. It has a parish church and a convent of nuns; and is also the residence of a vicar-general to the bishop of Plasencia. It is the birth-place of Doña Louisa de Carvajal, who died in London in the seventeenth century, and whose body being carried into Spain, was deposited in the convent of the Incarnation at Madrid, by order of Philip III.

On leaving Jaraycejo, we cross the river Alamonte, on a bridge of nine arches. We penetrate again into the mountains, which are frequently rough and dangerous, and which are a continuation of the famous mountains of Guadalupe. After ascending two leagues we reach the Puerto de Miravete, a passage considered dangerous, in consequence of the robberies which have been committed here: these are not now so frequent, the houses that have been built

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here and there have in some degree contributed to the security of travellers. We now descend from time to time, get a full sight of Truxillo, and arrive at that town, which is situated two leagues from the Puerto de Miravete.

Truxillo is an ancient town; but there is nothing certain with regard to its origin and antiquity. If we are to believe some Spanish historians, it existed long before Rome, under the name of Scalabis; which name it lost after the erection of a tower supposed to have been built by Julius Cæsar, and which took the name of Turris-Julia, afterwards given by it to the town. According to other authors, this town is the ancient Castra Julia of which Pliny speaks, whilst the archbishop Don Rodrigo has called it Tur Gellun. The people of the country attribute its foundation to Hercules, relying on an inscription which was formerly on one of the stones of the fortress; but this was too recent an inscription to merit any confidence.

This town passed from under the dominion of the Romans to that of the Goths; the Moors took it in 713, and retained it for 520 years; it was taken from them in 1185 by Alphonso, king of Castile; but this king having been vanquished a short time after at Sotillo by the wrecks of the army of the Almohades, it fell

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again into the hands of the conquerors; it was at last besieged and taken from the Moors in 1233, by the combined troops of the military orders of Spain and of the bishop of Plasencia.

The enclosure of this town bespeaks it to have been rather considerable in extent and population: the latter is now reduced to about four thousand persons.

Truxillo is situated on the summit and south side of a mountain. It may be divided into three parts, the castle, the town, and the city.

The castle is on the highest part; it is apparent that it was extremely well fortified, and provided with a great many cisterns, several of which still exist; we also see a grand reservoir where spring water is preserved, to which we descend by a winding staircase. This castle is the most ancient part of Truxillo; here it was that the *los hombres maduros*, that is to say, the elders, assembled in council. This circumstance we learn by the registers of the town-house.

The second part of Truxillo is the town, built likewise on the mountain, and attached to the castle; it appears to have been built very little later than the castle; it is surrounded with walls, flanked with very high towers, and having a parade. This was the part the nobility of the town formerly inhabited; we still see

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their houses, which have towers, sarbacanes, parapets, embrasures, and loop-holes, and are ornamented with the escutcheons of the proprietors. The streets are crooked and very narrow.

The third part, or the city, is of a much more modern construction; it extends from the southern side on the declivity of the hill to the plain; the streets are more regular. It has one fountain and a great many wells: one of which is twenty-five feet wide; here we see the houses of the nobility who abandoned the ancient town to inhabit this.

Truxillo was the birth place of Gaspard de Meli, a theologian of the sixteenth century, of Francisco Carrasco-del-Saz, a lawyer; of Francisco Diaz de Vargas, who published, in 1580, a history of the Portuguese war; and of Juan Pedro d'Aragon, known by his Discursos de la Razon, published in 1629. This town also gave birth to two celebrated warriors, who did honour to their country by their splendid exploits, and, still greater successes, the one Francisco Pizarro, the conqueror of Peru, the other Diego Garzias de Paredes, who, returning from the war against the Turks, died at Bologna, aged 64 years, and whose body was removed to Truxillo in 1545.

Truxillo has five parish churches, four convents of monks, and four of nuns: admission into one of the latter requires proof of nobility; one beguinage, where children are brought up, four hospitals, one criminal judge one alcalde mayor for the administration of justice, a municipality composed of a determinate number of regidors, and a board of public economy; it is the head quarters of a battalion of provincial militia, and

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the place of residence of a vicar to the bishop of Plasencia for the exercise of ecclesiastical jurisdiction.

The city has a square built in 1586, which is remarkable for its beauty and regularity. It is a perfect square; its four sides are formed by porticos which open by arches, borne on columns of the Tuscan, Doric, and Ionic orders intermixed. Over one of these arches called *del pan*, the city arms are placed between two pilasters of the Corinthian order, and above it a statue of Justice. In this square, we find a large handsome house built in 1651, which belonged to the counts *del Puerto*, and is now turned into barracks for the militia: it has a superb front, and the court is ornamented with piazzas and balconies over them, supported by forty-four columns of the Doric order.

The parish church of St. Martin, situated in the same square, is built of free stone. We enter it by a handsome portal, ornamented with Doric columns, over which there is an attic; it is large and has no aisles; it contains two pictures, a St. Peter in the chapel of the Regodones, and an Adoration of the Kings near the sacristy; the latter was sent from Rome by Cardinal Gaspard Cervantes de Gueta.

St. James's church has a grand altar of four Corinthian columns, with a semi-circular corona, and a fine statue of St. James, executed by Gregory Hernandez.

The church of the noble nuns, called de Coria, has two remarkable altars; that opposite the door, and that facing it; the one is ornamented with Corinthian pillars, and a statue of St. Anne, the other with Doric columns, with several bas-reliefs of the life of St. John.

The church of St. Mary, situated on almost the highest part of the town, is of the Gothic style; it has an ancient tower, which is said to be the Turris Julia. In the interior of this church we find the mausoleum of Diego Garzias de Paredes.

The town-house has a very fine saloon, in which are some tolerable paintings, amongst others an historical picture

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representing Alonzo Guzman the Good, witnessing the massacre of his son by the Moors at Tarifa.

On leaving the town of Truxillo, we proceed along the mountains; still ascend for three leagues; pass the puerta de Santa-Cruz; descend and cross the Perales, a torrent, the bed of which is often without water, but in rainy weather dangerous from the great quantity of it, as well as from the violence and rapidity of its course. Three leagues beyond the puerta de Santa-Cruz; we arrive at Miojadas, a poor little village, after which we cross, by a bridge, the river de Burdalo. We pass on to the Venta de la Aguia, which is two leagues from Miojadas; three leagues farther on to the village of San-Pedro, and two leagues more to that of Truxillano. We soon begin to perceive Merida; it displays itself more sensibly as we approach it, announcing the ancient grandeur of the town, and it presents the melancholy vestiges of the superb monuments which it contained. We reach it after travelling a league from Truxillano.

MERIDA. This town, formerly large, populous, and one of the most flourishing, now presents but a feeble image of what it was in remote times; the Romans were very fond of it, and it was one of those places they took delight in embellishing, one of those where they most displayed their grandeur and magnificence;

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and it is now one of the poorest and most neglected towns of the Spanish monarchy. Every thing here still bespeaks its past grandeur, every thing announces the power of its ancient masters; we cannot proceed a step without walking on the remains of some monuments, or without perceiving on all sides the deplorable vestiges of its ancient splendour. In fine, traversing it, we sigh over human vicissitudes, over the decay of so many monuments, and regret the neglect with which they have been treated.

This town became a Roman colony under the Emperor Augustus; after the war with the Cantabrians it was peopled with soldiers of the fifth and of the tenth legion, took the name of that prince, who called it Emerita Augusta, and became at the same time the capital of Lusitania, that is to say, of that part of Spain which included Portugal, the kingdom of Leon, a part of old Castile, and a great part of Estremadura; its inhabitants were called Emeritenses. Its extent was eight miles according to some, according to other six leagues in circumference. If the descriptions that remain of it be true, few towns can be compared to it. The Moor Albenterique gives it a circumference of eight miles, and a garison of 80,000 infantry and 10,000 cavalry. The chronicle of king don Rodrigo outdoes Albenterique, and enters into

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more extensive details; it gives it a circumference of six leagues, fifteen stadia in length, and ten in breadth, eighty-four gates, 3700 towers, five palaces, straight streets opening into the grand square, and furnished with pipes which conveyed water from a principal reservoir into all the houses. It adds, that the Moor Musa, who took it from the Goths, was terrified at its grandeur. These details are perhaps exaggerated; however that be, it is a fact, that this town was of immense extent, and the largest in Spain, under the Romans. Under the dominion of the Goths, it preserved its monuments; but besieged and taken in 713 by the Moors, their destructive hands spared nothing they could overthrow. It was retaken from them by Alphonso IX., king of Castile and Leon, in 1230, in consequence of the victory which he obtained with 20,000 men, over an army of 80,000 Moors. From that period it has been always attached to the kingdom of Castile.

Merida is in that part of Spain which the Romans called Vetonia. Its situation is bordering on the Guadiana, on a hill whence it extends far into the neighbouring plain, but this extent has decreased to such a degree, that at present its population hardly amounts to 5000 inhabitants. Under the Gothic kings this town was the see of an archbishop; some pro-

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vincial councils were then held here, amongst which, that of the year 666 is the only one known: its decrees tended to repress the tyranny of some bishops. It was also under its archbishops that this town was the focus and theatre of a conspiracy against the king's life, to crush the catholic religion, and render Arianism the prevailing one; it burst forth in 587. Already had blood begun to flow under the swords of the Arians, when duke Claudius hastened to the support of the king and persecuted catholics, and the Arians were subdued in their turn.

The archiepiscopal see of Merida was removed to Compostella by pope Calistus II., under king Alphonso VII., whilst this town was in the possession of the Moors. When retaken by Alphonso IX. he gave it to the military order of St. James, who provided for its government, ecclesiastical, military, and civil; it still belongs to this order. It has an ecclesiastical provisor, nominated by the prior of the convent of St. Mark of Leon, of the same order, who exercises ecclesiastical jurisdiction throughout his whole district; a military and civil governor for the order of St. James; and an alcalde mayor, who administers justice, civil and criminal.

The town had also a king, but this royalty was of short duration; the Moor, to whom the king of Cordova confided the government of it, re-

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belled in 820, and caused himself to be crowned; but being vigorously attacked by the king's troops in 824, he fled and took refuge in the Asturias.

Merida took as arms the reverse of a medal struck under Augustus to commemorate its erection into a Roman colony; it is a gate of a town formed by two arches accompanied by two towers, one on each side, with a sort of semicircular enclosure, which extends from one to the other. Merida affords considerable wrecks of its ancient magnificence under the Romans, and the splendid works of those people: the pavement of the streets, of the houses, and of the churches, are so many traces of their works; the walls are covered with those precious remains, and the cellars are filled with them. We find some also out of the town, in the gardens, in the fields, on the roads, and, in short, every where. Inscriptions are numerous, and the ruins of columns, of vases, of capitals, frizes, statues, and bass-reliefs, are observable in every quarter.

Here the Romans built superb bridges and magnificent temples; here they erected triumphal arches and beautiful aqueducts; here they raised edifices necessary to public feasts, to the games and pleasures of the citizens; a circus, a theatre, a naumachia. We still see the vestiges of these grand public monuments;

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some are in the town, others out of it; but they were all comprised within the ancient boundaries.

Merida had several aqueducts, of which the remains give a grand idea of their beauty: we see two of them still, as well as the vestiges of a fortress. The baths are in a better state of preservation than most of the other monuments.

Two other fine works, which are also attributed to the Romans, are still in existence near Merida: these are two very large reservoirs full of water, appearing like two lakes; the country people call them Albufera and Albuera. One is ninety feet in length, and fifty-one deep; it is surrounded by thick walls, and ornamented with two beautiful towers, a very fine flight of steps leads to the bottom: this reservoir is a league from the town. The other reservoir is two leagues; it is small, but the walls which contain the waters and the great tower which serves it for an apperture for air are much finer. These two basins are supplied and filled by rain water and by springs. The first has abundance of fish. Here we perceive some steps, which led to a supposition that these reservoirs were designed for combats on the water, and that these steps were intended as seats for the spectators; but there is no authority for this conjecture. May it not be supposed that these basins were

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destined to water the land? May they not have been the works of the Moors, who excelled in this way? We still find similar ones made by this people, in the kingdoms of Murcia and Valencia.

Merida gave birth to the poet Decianus, who flourished at Rome under Augustus; to the historian Juan-Antonio de Vera y Zuniga, who died in 1658; and to Balthazar Moreno de Vergas, well known by a history of his country, some researches on the Spanish nobility, and still more by his notes on the work *de Vita et Miracullis Patrum emeritensium de Paulus Diaconus.*

To proceed from Merida to Badajoz we have the choice of two roads, both of nine leagues. One passes by Loban, the other by Puebla de la Calzada.

Road from Merida to Badajoz, by la Puebla de la Calzada, nine leagues.

	LEAGUES.
MERIDA	
A rivulet, (with a bridge)	½
Le Puebla de la Calzada, (a village)	3 ½
The Guadiana, (a river and bridge)	5
Badajoz, (a town)	

On leaving Merida we continue on the right bank of the river Guadiana half way to Puebla,

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crossing a small rivulet by a bridge of one arch, built of free stone, and the work of the Romans. Some time after, we perceive to the right, at a little distance from one another, the villages of Esparragalejo, Garobilla, and Torre-Mayor; and to the left, on the other side of the river, those of Lobon and Talavera la Real. After travelling four leagues more, we arrive at Puebla de la Calzada, so named on account of the causeway, or Roman military road, which led from Merida to Lisbon. This village contains about 1800 inhabitants. In its parish church may be seen several fine paintings by Moralez.

A quarter of a league in the country we discover the little town of Montijo, situated on the Guadiana; it was formerly more considerable. It has at present a population of 3600 souls, a parish church, and another which was formerly parochial, under the name of St. Salvador.

Advancing on this road we find a great many gardens; there are numerous fruit trees, and verdant carpets in succession a great way; the plain we pursue is otherwise uninteresting; and when we have crossed the river (the Guadiana) we arrive at Badajos.

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Another road from Merida to Badajoz, by Lobon, nine leagues.

	LEAGUES.
MERIDA to	
Lobon, (a village)	4
The Guadaxira, (a torrent)	
Talavera le Real or Talaveruela, (a village)	2
The Lentrin, (a river without a bridge)	
The Revillo, (a river without a bridge)	
Badajoz, (a town)	3

In going from Merida to Badajoz, we enter a large sandy plain, formed by the Guadiana; this river, running in different directions, insensibly wares away the hills, and forms in its course a great many islands, where flocks are fed. After travelling four leagues through the plain we arrive at the village of Lobon, situated on the banks of the river; it has a parish church and a convent of Franciscans. Sometime afterwards we meet with the Guadaxira, which is almost always dry, but impassable, or dangerous in the rainy season, there being no bridge. We arrive at a village of little importance, called Talavera le Real, and also Talaveruela. We then go over an even country, little cultivated, and almost all of it in pastures. Having successively crossed the rivers Lentrin, and Rivillo, we arrive at Badajoz.

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BADAJOZ, was a town of some fame under the Romans, who gave it the name of Pax Augusta, whence by corruption comes that which it now bears. The Moors called it Beledaix, that is to say, land of holiness. This term of predilection did not change its former name.

This town was formerly situated in the highest part, where the castle now stands, and was of great extent; in the foundations and ruins we recognize the different styles of the buildings of the Romans, Goths, and Moors; we likewise find on the site some deserted churches. The town at present is situated lower, and extends into a handsome plain on the bank of the Guadiana.

It has always been, since the Romans, a fortified town, and is now one of the barriers of Spain towards Portugal, from which it is not further than a league and a half: it consequently contains all the fortifications that can contribute to its defence. It is protected besides by two forts, the castle of S. Christobal to the west, and that of las Pardaleras to the east.

Badajoz experienced the fate of its province; its ancient town, subject to the Romans, was conquered by the Goths in the fifth century, and by the Moors in the eighth. It was besieged and taken from the Moors in 1168, by

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Alphonso Henry, a prince of the house of Burgundy, and founder of the Portuguese Monarchy. This siege gave rise to a memorable event: the Moors, possessors of Badajoz, placed themselves under the protection of Ferdinand II. king of Leon, and payed him a tribute; that prince hastened to the assistance of his vassals, and arrived just as the town was taken: he immediately laid siege to it; and Alphonso Henry not being able to resist the king of Leon, endeavoured to escape in a sortie; but falling from his horse he broke his thigh and was made prisoner. Ferdinand used his victory like a hero, he consoled the prince, set him at liberty, and returned the town to the Moors. But in 1181, Alphonso Henry besieged it again, and took it from the Moors, who once more got possession of it through the treachery of the governor. At last in 1230, according to some, the Moors were for ever expelled by Alphonso IX. king of Castile; and according to others, in 1235 by the troops of the bishop of Plasencia and those of the military orders of Spain.

In 1660, Badajoz withstood all the efforts of the Portuguese, who were compelled to raise the siege. It was likewise, during the war for the succession, fruitlessly besieged in 1705, by the combined troops of England and Portugal.

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Extent and Situation. There are five gates to the town. The streets are narrow and often crooked. There are no fountains. There is, without the gate of las Palmas, on the road to Portugal, a very fine bridge over the Guadiana; it was built in 1596, with a very hard stone; it has twenty-eight arches, the largest of which is seventy-eight feet wide, and the smallest twenty-one. Its length is 1874 feet, and its breadth twenty. There is a fine promenade out of the town formed by poplars on the bank of the Guadiana.

Ecclesiastical Administration. The bishopric of Badajoz, suffragan of the metropolis of San-Jago, comprehends in its diocese a cathedral chapter, arch-priesthood, and 50 parishes. The chapter is composed of seven dignitaries, twelve canons, four prebendaries and six sub-prebendaries, besides twenty priests; eleven chaplains, one chief vestry-man and several under ones, who make a part of the clergy of the same church, which also has a music chapel, three orgainsts, two sub-chanters, five musicians for chanting, five for instruments, and eight young choristers. There are besides in this town five parish churches, seven monasteries, five nunneries, and five hospitals.

Military Administration. Badajoz is the residence of a captain-general, and intendant of the province of Estremadura, and the head quarters of a battalion of militia. It has a military and civil governor, a king's lieutenant, a major, a military governor for the castle of Christobal, an alcalde mayor for the administration of justice, a principal contador of war, a military auditor, fourteen companies of militia belonging to the place, a garrison more or less numerous, according as they are required, and an arsenal, called la Maestranza, in which all kinds of arms and instruments of war are kept.

Public edifices. The cathedral church is the only edifice that is tolerable; but it deserves little notice. The choir, placed in the middle of the nave, is covered with orna-

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ments in sculpture, some of which are not without merit. The organ is very large. In some of the chapels there are tolerably good paintings; among others a Magdalen, thought to be by Mateo Cerezo; there are also paintings in the chapter room, and in the other churches; some are attributed to Moralez.

Manufactories. There is only one manufactory in the whole town; which is one for hats established within a very few years by a Frenchman. As for the population it is at most from fourteen to fifteen thousand persons.

Abu-Mohamed-Abdalla, who has left a method of writing, in which there are several excellent precepts of rhetoric and poetry, was born at Badajoz, at the end of the ninth century. It was likewise the birth-place of the painter Christobal Perez Moralez, and of Fernandez-Bejara, a physician, who has left some writings.

Here, supposing that we are going to Portugal, we leave Badajoz by the gate of las Palmas; cross the Guadiana over the bridge that has been mentioned; travel through the plain for a league and a half, and ford the small river Caya, after which we find ourselves in Portugal.

Road from Almaraz to Talavera la Vieja, three leagues.

	LEAGUES.
ALMARAZ to.....	
Belvis, (a village).....	1 ½
The Tagus (a river without a bridge, a ferry boat) Talavera la Vieja.....	1 ½

In leaving Almaraz, we quit the great road,

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cross the country, and travel on to Belvis, which is in an elevated situation, and from which we discover an immense extent of lands, and the chain of mountains which separates old Castile from Estremadura. Belvis contains one parish church and two convents of nuns. Soon after quitting this town we fall in with the Tagus, and keep along its banks for near a league, travelling through valleys and over agreeable hills, watered by streams and small rivers. We leave to the left the hamlet of las Casas de Belvis, and to the right a Franciscan convent; we cross the Tagus in a ferry-boat, and soon after arrive at Talavera la Vieja.

Talavera la Vieja, or the old, was a town of which the Romans were very fond: they took delight in lavishing their works on it; yet there are very slight vestiges of them. There are several wrecks, however, which show what it was; there is hardly a house in which there are not some to be found; bases, columns, pilasters, fragments, more or less considerable, capitals of various orders, and inscriptions cased in the walls; all these make a part of the commonest houses.

The remains of two temples are the most important objects. Don Ignacio de Hermosilla, published in 1762, a description of the monuments

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of this town with engravings. There is also one in the Memoirs of the Academy of History at Madrid.

Talavera is in a delightful situation, on the left bank of the Tagus, in a country on part of which there are vines and corn, and the other is pasture, or covered with a small kind of oak. The population of this town is small; there are about 500 inhabitants.

Road from Almaraz, to Plasencia, Coria, Alcantara, and Caceres, and from thence to Merida, fifty-seven leagues.

	LEAGUES.
ALMARAZ to	
Toril, (a village)	2
The Tietar, (a river without a bridge, a boat)	2
Malpartida, (a small town)	3
Plasencia, (a town)	1
Villar (a village)	3
Ambroz, (a river and bridge)	3
Aldea Nueva, (a village)	
Ambroz, (a river and bridge)	
Abadia (a village)	1
Ambroz, (a river and bridge)	
La Granja, (a village)	1
Ambroz, (a river and bridge)	2
Caparra.	
La Oliva, (a village)	1
Carcobosco, (a village)	2
Alde Huella, (a village)	1

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	LEAGUES.
Xerte, (a river and bridge)	1
Galisteo, (a village)	
Coria, (a town)	4
A bridge without a river	
The Alagon, (a river without a bridge)	2
Pescueza, (a hamlet)	
Ceclavin, (a village)	3
Alcantara, (a town)	3
The Tagus, (a river and bridge)	
Villa de Rey, (a village)	2
Brozas, (a village)	1
Arroyo del Puerto, (a town)	4
Caceres, (a town)	3
Merida, (a town)	12

In going from Almaraz we leave the great road of Portugal; and travel through fields which are alternately covered with oak and pastures, and with wells and lagoons at distances, which serve for watering the cattle. Leaving to the left the village of Serrajon, and to the right those of Saucedilla and Casa-texada, we arrive at that of Toril. Two leagues beyond Toril we ford, or cross in a boat, the river Tietar, in the neighbourhood of which there is a great quantity of oak of various kinds, cork-trees, &c. The country then becomes desert and uncultivated, covered with heath, except a few oak trees which we see here and there; we then arrive at Malpartida.

MALPARTIDA is a small town, containing a

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population of about 1300 inhabitants. It is tolerably well built; its parish church is handsome and built with granite, brought from an adjacent quarry called that of the Five Brothers. The front is majestic; it has two stories of architecture of the Corinthian order, four columns in the first and two in the second; ornamented with statues of St. Peter and St. Paul.

The country as we leave this town is any thing but agreeable: there are however some oak and shrubs of different kinds here and there. Soon after, the land becomes arid, sterile, or at least uncultivated for more than half a league; but as we approach Plasencia, the soil resumes its fertility, and we enter the town by a very rapid descent.

Plasencia. This little town is situated in the middle of mountains, in a narrow valley, tolerably fertile, nine leagues long and which is watered by the river Xerte; on the banks of which the town stands, partly surrounded by it, as if in a peninsula. Its situation is also embellished by an agreeable promenade.

It was pretended that this town was the ancient Ambracia of the Romans, and this opinion was founded on the territory bearing the name of Ambroz in the twelfth century, and also because the river which passes at some leagues distance still bears that name; and lastly on

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some antique inscriptions; but there is ground to suppose that the Ambracia of the Romans was more likely the Capara of our days, which we shall presently mention.

Plasencia is a suffragan of San-Jago. Its diocese comprehends a cathedral chapter, and a hundred and fifty-two parishes. The bishop was probably very powerful formerly, as we find from history that he several times levied troops to fight against the Moors, as noticed in treating of Truxillo and Badajoz. The cathedral chapter includes eight dignitaries, sixteen canonries, and eight prebends; besides nine beneficed priests, thirty-two chaplains, twenty young choirists, and eighteen young boys called *miseros*, to serve at masses. The young choristers are promoted, after taking holy orders, to the places of chaplains, and the miseros, who are gratuitously taught chanting, take the places of the young choristers.

This town is the chief place of a corregidorat; it has a criminal judge, an alcalde mayor, and a municipality composed of a certain number of regidors. There are seven parish churches, three convents of monks, four of nuns, and several chapels or oratories. The church of the Dominicans has a handsome front of the Composite order; it has a single nave, fine, large, and in the Gothic style, with a chief altar of

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tolerably good architecture. Among its chapels that of St. John contains the tomb of Martin Nieto; the statue of the deceased, which is armed and kneeling, is graceful, noble, and full of expression: it has been thought by many persons to be one of the finest monuments executed in Spain since the revival of the arts.

The cathedral church, built with granite, was erected at different times; we easily distinguish in it the taste of the different centuries and epochs of the progress and decline of the arts. Its front, which looks to the north, has three stories of architecture with two towers, and is loaded with a whimsical mixture of singular ornaments. Its interior is little worthy of attention; the stalls of the choir are confusedly covered with paintings and sculptures in bass-reliefs of figures of men and animals, equally extravagant and ridiculous, which are multiplied without end. In the sanctuary is placed the tomb of Pontius de Leon, bishop of Plasencia; it is executed with tolerable taste. The chief altar has three stories of architecture of the Corinthian order; the two first of eight columns each, on pedestals ornamented with bass-reliefs. The third is of four columns. An Assumption of the Virgin, in sculpture, with groupes of angels and apostles occupy the middle; other statues are distributed in different parts. There

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are also some good pieces executed by the famous Spanish statuary Gregory Hernandez. The high chapter-room also contains some good paintings; among others a Betrothing of St. Catherine in the manner of Rubens, a Nativity of Jesus Christ by Diego Velasquez, and a St. Augustin by Espagnolet.

The house of the marquis de Mirabel is the principal private house of this town. It has a large court surrounded by a double row of porticos, one above the other, supported by columns; but the most interesting thing in it is a fine collection of antiquities, which are kept in a gallery of this mansion. It contains urns, heads, busts, altars, and inscriptions; we notice in it a colossal head of Tiberius, a foot, also colossal, with a buskin on it; a head of Charles V. in marble, one of Leon Leoni, another of Pompey his son, and a handsome bust of Antoninus Pius.

The situation of this town is pleasant on the side of the Xerte; this river forms a kind of island covered with trees, which shade charming walks. There is also a very fine aqueduct, which conveys the water from a distance of two leagues; it has upwards of eighty arches.

In leaving Plasencia the road becomes bad for one league; we are, however, in the valley in which the town is situated; in half a league we ascend a hill tolerably furnished with trees, and

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on descending, enter the territory called Trasierra, which leads us to Villar. We see at a distance a chain of mountains which extends from Peña de Francia to the mountain of Xalama on the frontiers of Portugal; besides these two mountains we distinguish those of el Gamo, los Angeles, and Guta. Villar is a village agreeably situated; there are Roman inscriptions on the walls of several of the houses; the environs are full of chesnut and fruit trees; it has great advantages from the abundance and excellence of the waters which rise in its territory: the Romans conveyed them to Caparra by an aqueduct, the remains of which are still to be seen. We pass Aldea Nueva, a village of 1500 inhabitants; it is on the side of a mountain covered with chesnut-trees: we there twice cross the river Ambroz over two bridges, one at the entrance and the other at leaving the village; this last is called that of Doncella. We go along the river, perceive to the right the Puerto of Gunilla, and arrive at Abadia, a small village belonging to the duke of Alva, whose gardens are ornamented with superb fountains, busts, and statues in marble, both ancient and modern. A little after, we re-cross the river Ambroz over a bad bridge, and pass a convent of Franciscans; half a league farther we see a shattered milestone, and arrive at la Granja: from thence to

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Caparra we are continually traversing woods of green and hard oak. We leave to the left the hamlet of Villeria, and to the right the village of Lazarza.

CAPARRA. This place, now depopulated, was the Ambracia of the Romans, and some of the valuable remains of their works are still preserved here. The town was situated on a small eminence on the bank of the Ambroz, which we cross over a bridge of four arches, also built by the Romans. It is now reduced to a state below that of a paltry hamlet, but interesting ruins cover its ancient site. There is a triumphal arch built with large stones on the Roman military way, with some fragments of an inscription. In quitting this place we continue to traverse woods of green oak, and pass through Oliva, a small village of about 240 inhabitants, where the poet Juvencus was born: we then come to a village in a plain quite as insignificant, called Carcaboso, and Alde Huela, which was nearly deserted and almost destroyed, but which has been re-built, and whose population increases every day. We then cross the river Xerte over a fine bridge of seven arches; we ascend and arrive at Galisto*, another village,

* There is a palace here of fine architecture, ornamented with many columns; its structure, of tolerably good taste, seems of the sixteenth century. It belongs to the duke d'Arco.

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of about 1200 inhabitants, and which is in a very elevated situation. This road shows on all sides the traces of depopulation and the ravages of time, but still leaves something to feed the curiosity of the lovers of antiquity: it is almost entirely covered with wrecks of Roman grandeur, which are seen in the remains of monuments, inscriptions, mile-stones, and fragments of the military way, all which occupy the attention of the traveller to Coria, where he arrives through a plain of four leagues, lying along the right bank of the Alagon.

Coria. This small town, situated on the river Alagon, existed in the time of the Romans; it is the Cauria and Caurium of Ptolemy. Its present population is about 1500 inhabitants. The limits of the Roman fortifications still exist; the walls are of large stones regularly placed, being twenty feet and a half high, and sixteen feet four inches thick, flanked at intervals by large square towers of the same construction: there are four gates, each thirteen feet nine inches high by twelve broad, and defended by two towers; there are many antique inscriptions found here.

This town is now protected by a very inconsiderable fort, but which is advantageously situated; it was built in the fourteenth century;

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we ascend to it by a flight of a hundred and odd steps.

Coria is the see of a suffragan bishop of the metropolitan of St. Jago, whose diocese comprehends a cathedral chapter and 199 parishes. The chapter of this cathedral reside in the town; they have succeeded to a monastery of regular canons of St. Augustin, which has been secularized; it is composed of eleven dignitaries, fourteen canonries, and six prebendaries. There is in the same church a beneficed cure, which is served by seven ecclesiastics. The cathedral church has no aisles; it is large and in the Gothic style, but neither handsome nor majestic; it contains, however, some tombs, which merit a little attention; they are all in marble.

In leaving Coria we pass over a fine bridge of seven arches without a river; it was built over the Alagon; but this river, changing its course, the bridge is without water, and must remain so unless the river should happen to resume its ancient channel. We ford the Alagon, and two leagues after arrive at Pescueza, a hamlet, where we leave to the right the village of Cachorilla; at a little distance the road is intersected by another, which leads to Portozuelo*, a small village

* The council of this village has a singular privilege of giving letters of qualification for the exercise of the different mechanical and some liberal arts throughout Estremadura;

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at the distance of two leagues. The country to Célavin is covered with nothing but useless shrubs.

CELAVIN, a small but ancient town, which was formerly opulent, has no more than about three thousand inhabitants, who attend to the cultivation of the lands, chiefly vineyards: they have some gardens, which are watered by garden engines. We travel for a league and a half through the midst of vineyards; the road becomes narrow, and is nothing more than a by-path, which passes over uneven rocks; it leads by a long descent to the bank of the Tagus, which we cross in a bad ferry-boat, and arrive soon after at Alcantara.

ALCANTARA, according to some authors, is an ancient town, for they pretend that it was the Norba Cæsarea of Ptolemy, the Norbensis Colonia of Pliny, and the Lancia of the Romans; but it is certain that it did not exist under any of those nations: it is a modern town built by the Moors; it is situated upon the banks of the Tagus, and was taken from them in 1218 by Alphonso IX. king of Leon, and given to the military order of Calatrava; the knights of this order established themselves in it, and in the

this qualification, or freedom, costs 75 reals of vellon (15*s.* 7½*d.*) The villages of Pedrosa del Rey Madrigal and Santa Maria de la Nueva, in Old Castile, enjoy a similar privilege.

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very next year formed a distinct order, of which this town became the chief place, and gave its name to it. The knights of the order of Alcantara have a council-house, the building of which was carried on during four reigns. It was begun in 1505, under Ferdinand V. continued under Phillip I. and Charles I. and finished under Philip II. The church is large, and has a nave and two aisles; it is not yet finished: upon some altars, and in the sacristy, there are several good pictures painted by Moralez.

Alcantara has a separate military and civil governor for the order of the knights, a king's lieutenant, a major, and an aide-major for the same order, and an alcalde-major for the administration of justice. Its population is about 3000 persons. In this town there is a superb bridge over the Tagus, a magnificent work of the Romans: its height is 175 feet 8 inches above the ordinary level of the water, or 211 feet 10 inches above the bottom or bed of the river; its length is 576 feet 11 inches, and its breadth 27 feet and a half: it is formed of six unequal arches; the two middle ones are 94 feet wide, and their piers 32 feet 8 inches thick. There is a triumphal arch in the middle of the bridge, extending the whole of its breadth; it is 40 feet and a half high, and is built of large granite stones, each three feet and a half long by

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one foot three-quarters wide. At the end of this bridge, on the side of the town, there is a small temple of similar construction; it is 20 feet high by 12 and a half wide, and is built of a small number of enormous stones. In the interior is the tomb, which contains the ashes of Caius Lucius Lacer, the architect of the whole work. This little monument has since become a chapel dedicated to Saint Julian.

The Moors, besieged in Alcantara, demolished in their defence, the smallest arch of this bridge; Charles the First had it rebuilt in the sixteenth century. On the peace of Utrecht, the Portuguese, who were obliged to evacuate this town, blew up two arches of the bridge: they were rebuilt by Charles III.

On quitting Alcantara, for three leagues we travel through a country most of which is pasture, pass Villa de Rey, a small village, and afterwards Brozas, a small town, which contains about 2500 inhabitants, with two churches and two convents. It has an alcalde-major for the administration of justice: it is the birth-place of Francisco Sanchez, known by his writings on grammar, the art of poetry and oratory. We afterwards enter a very thick wood of oaks, and travel through it for upwards of three leagues; it leads to Arroyo del Puerco, a town of about 5000 inhabitants, in which there are some good

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cloth manufactories. Its parish church is ornamented with sixteen good paintings by Moralez. We go two leagues further through plantations of oaks, and come to a place where wool is washed for the manufactories of Arroya. The country soon after begins to be cultivated and attended to, the fields appear better kept as we approach Caceres, where we arrive in three leagues and a half from Arroyo del Puerco.

Caceres. This town is ancient; it was a Roman colony with the name of Castra Cœcilia; the building of it is attributed to Quintus Cecilius Metellus. The town of Caceres is situated upon an eminence; it has four parish churches, and seven convents. It is the residence of a vicar-general of the bishop of Coria for the exercise of the ecclesiastical jurisdiction; it has a royal audience, which includes Estremadura in its jurisdiction, and which has been only established since 1791. It is the chief place of a corregidorat; it has a penal judge, and an alcalde-major. Its population is about 8000 persons. This town is neither large nor well built; it boasts of no edifice that is worth the attention of the traveller: yet we must remark the court of the hospital of Mercy, which is surrounded by a double portico, one over the other, supported by columns of the Doric order. Besides several vestiges of Roman inscriptions, it has

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some antiquities, amongst others there is, in the square, a marble statue larger than life; it has a cornucopia in the left hand, and its head is covered with its mantle.

Note. There is a cross-road from Caceres to Merida, its length is twelve leagues.

STATISTICAL ABSTRACT RELATIVE PARTICULARLY TO ESTREMADURA.

Population. The population of Estremadura was considerable under the Romans; it continued so under the Moors, and gradually decreased under their conquerors: in short, it diminished every day under their successors. According to the return made in 1787 and 1788, it only contained 416,922 inhabitants; yet it is 2000 square leagues in extent. On comparing this with the population of Galicia, which is not far from it, we shall be astonished at the enormous difference; the latter is only 1660 square leagues, and has 1,345,803 inhabitants, and that too, notwithstanding a continual emigration. Consequently, in Estremadura, we travel through immense spaces without meeting a settlement, a house, or a man, and without perceiving a tree or an atom of cultivated land.

In the population of this province, there are,

Parish priests	341
Priests	2,441
Monks	2,060
Nuns	1,748
Nobles	3,724
Advocates	305
Writers	505
Students	1,446
Servants	11,036

The depopulation of this province is generally attributed to the *mesta*, that is to say, the custom of receiving in winter

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flocks sent from some provinces in Spain, and of sending the flocks of Estremadura some where else in the summer. The number of men who are employed for this amounts to 40,000, who, continually travelling, never marry, and are thus lost in the scale of agriculture and population.

Besides this, proprietors who sell or let out their pastures, find it more agreeable to draw an income from them without being obliged to have them cultivated; from this neglect of cultivation, the labourers are not able to obtain work; and the productions of the land being extremely limited, are consequently sold very dear. The peasant, who does not otherwise obtain employment, is not able to procure the necessaries of life; he languishes in misery, he grows weary of his country, he leaves it, and seeks in another the employment which can furnish him with the means of subsistence. Thus this province daily experiences fresh losses of its inhabitants.

Some other causes have likewise conspired to produce the same effect. A great number of the Moors inhabited Estremadura; their final expulsion in 1614, left a great many houses and villages completely deserted. Distant wars, during two centuries, tore a great number of soldiers from the country. The discovery of America injured the population of Estremadura almost as much. The conquerors of the new world were natives of this province, they inflamed the ambition of their fellow-citizens, they strongly persuaded them to fight under their standards, and to obtain the riches of the country which they had conquered. The emigration from this province was greater than from any other province of the Spanish monarchy.

There is no doubt that the suppression of the *mesta*, or at least some modifications of its system, would have the effect of clearing the lands; and the re-establishment of agriculture, giving a new birth to emulation and industry, would be the means of re-peopling a province which might be able of itself to supply food for a third of Spain.

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Agriculture. The Romans were fully sensible of the value of Estremadura, and the Moors made a garden of it. Its soil is of the most fertile earth: it abundantly contains the principle of a rich vegetation, which developes itself with the greatest activity; the heat of the climate is favourable to growth: and the numerous rivers which run through this province are ready to produce an increase of fertility, and scatter round the richest abundance: but the earth is, as it were, given up to itself; if it yields some productions it does not owe them to the industry of man, but to its own vigour; and frequently the natural germ which would in time embellish it, is by the ignorant husbandman stifled in it's bosom. It is almost completely reduced to the lamentable state of rank pasturage. Zavola calculates, that in the district of Badajoz there is a space of twenty-six leagues long by twelve broad of waste lands.

Throughout the whole province there are scarcely any gardens or orchards to be met with; neither fruit, mulberry-trees, nor hemp; wheat and rye are almost the only productions. These are generally sufficient for the support of the population, because, as has been said, it is exceedingly small, and because the principal part of the country people eat very little.

Olive-trees are but thinly planted; vines are not much more multiplied; chesnut-trees are more numerous, happily for the inhabitants of the country, who partly live upon their fruit. It is the neglected state of agriculture which ruins the population. The proprietors find their account in neither ploughing nor sowing their fields, as they run no risk of bad harvests: their income is always the same, and always equally certain, by keeping their lands in grass, which they let to feed the numerous flocks that are sent into the province every year about autumn, and remain through the winter; the number of these is estimated at 4,000,000 head. It is easy to imagine what an enormous extent of land is necessary for them. But what

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will appear astonishing is, that in this number of flocks that the province supports for six months, it has not a sufficient quantity of its own to improve its soil.

Yet there are cantons which furnish different sorts of productions in abundance; for example, there is a great number of gardens and fruit-trees between the Puebla de la Calzada and Montijo, in the Vera de Plasencia, &c. a great number of olive-trees at Banos, a great number of vines at Talavera la Vieja and Banos, numerous plantations of oak, chesnut, and other kind of trees round Talavera, between las Brozas and Arroyo del Puerco, in the Vera de Plasencia and its valley; lastly, near Ervas, Banos, and Bejar. The sides of the mountain of Guadalupe, near the monastery of that name*, are covered with trees, and are particularly full of medicinal plants. There are also some cantons where we find a cultivation directed with more care and skill; such are the environs of Caceres, of Plasencia, the valley in which that town is situated, the Vega, which is separated from that valley by mountains, upon which vines, olive, mulberry, lemon, cedar, and all kind of fruit-trees are every where found in abundance. In the valley of Bejar, the people even apply great labour to agriculture, there being great difficulties to surmount in the soil, from the mountains, hills, and gulleys; but we every where see fields raised one above the other, forming so many terraces supported by walls; in looking at them, we might believe ourselves transported to the mountains of the kingdom of Valencia. But these extraordinary cantons, which form an exception, are also a striking contrast to the rest of Etremadura.

* This is a monastery of Jeronimites, very famous in Spain, and very rich. In the treasury, besides a silver throne for the Holy Virgin, two large angels of the same metal, and a quantity of gold and silver shrines and relics enriched with precious stones, there is a casket of silver gilt with beautiful bass-reliefs in enamel, a silver tabernacle weighing 240 marks, and a gold crucifix weighing four marks, &c.

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Manufactures and Commerce. The excellence of the soil having principally attracted the attention of the Moors, their industry was more directed towards that than to manufactures. It does not appear that this province ever had large establishments of this kind; yet it possessed during several centuries some good manufactories of broad cloths and other woollens; those established at Alhanchel were the best, but have been long shut up from the want of workmen, and of vents for sale. Some manufactories, which are still carried on, are so unimportant, that they scarcely deserve to be mentioned. They consist of a manufactory of hats established ten years ago at Badajoz by a Frenchman, two similar manufactories at Zafra, a great number of tanning yards also at Zafra and at the hamlet of Caceres; and a manufactory of broad cloths at Arroyo del Puerco. There are besides some single looms for second cloths at Ervas, and for common cloths at Begar. This last establishment is the most considerable; it furnishes Castile and Andalusia with a certain quantity of these cloths.

A province which produces hardly any thing, which manufactures still less, and which must receive every thing from other countries, cannot give an idea of advantageous commerce; every thing must be imported, every thing must be burdensome to it; its impoverishment must daily increase. By considerable tillage and rational agriculture, which would multiply productions of the best quality to be exported, or to obtain raw materials proper for different manufactures, it might be thought that commerce would in this case flourish with a certain vigour; yet, it must be allowed, that one obstacle would oppose great success, which is the difficulty of exportation. Estremadura is inland, far from the sea, and from all interior navigation; merchandizes can only be transported in small carts, and in many places on the backs of mules. This obstacle, however, is not insurmountable; the province is on the borders of Portugal, which would furnish a vent; it is also on the borders of the kingdom of Seville, whi-

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ther merchandizes and commodities might be transported, and afterwards shipped.

This commerce would be an addition to the great resources of Spain, would be very active, if the Tagus, which runs through Estremadura, and the Guadiana, which also runs through it, were both navigable. The latter might easily be rendered so; the former was once so; boats of a considerable size went up and down from Toledo to Lisbon. So useful an undertaking will no doubt engage the attention of the government. A society of public economy established at Truxillo appeared to be occupied with the means of encouraging agriculture; but nothing hitherto appears to have been done which answers the aim of its institution.

Roads, Transport, and Inns. Nature has formed the roads of Estremadura, art has scarcely contributed to them at all. The grand road which leads into Portugal is the best kept; it was repaired every time that any of the royal family of Spain and Portugal were going to travel that way, which has happened more frequently since the two families became allied by marriages. This road is neither good nor bad, and, with the exception of some parts more difficult than others, it is very passable; it is even rendered in some degree pleasant by bridges being built over all the rivers as far as Merida. Of the two roads which lead from that town to Badajoz, that which passes by Lobon is the pleasantest in summer; but it is sometimes dangerous in winter, in the time of the rains, on account of a torrent and two rivers which must be passed, and over which there are no bridges. The other roads of Estremadura are more neglected; there are even a great many of them almost impassable, and others where no carriage can possibly go.

The traveller in entering Estremadura should arm himself with courage and patience; the inconveniences which he has experienced in the *posadas* of the other parts of Spain are nothing compared to those which attend him in this province.

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These houses where the traveller seeks shelter and repose are for the most part like bad stables: the rooms, the kitchens, the persons who inhabit them are all filthy: we are sometimes by the side of a hog, an ass or a mule; the bedsteads are not equal to a truss of straw; we find nothing to eat in the posada, and frequently nothing is to be bought in the places where they are situated.

The carriages are generally drawn by oxen, scarcely any by mules: no other coaches are to be seen than those which come from Madrid on the way to Portugal.

Natural History. The mountains of Estremadura would furnish an interesting pursuit to a naturalist if they were examined with care. They have till now been neglected; Bowles is the only person who has observed any part of them. The particulars known respecting their natural productions are limited to a very small number of objects, and may be reduced to the following:

Mines of Copper in several parts of Estremadura: one is particularly noticed in the mountain of Guadalupe, to the south of the village of Logrosen; it is in a blue and green mixed stone.

A mine of lead upon an eminence called Vadija, or valley of las Minas, two leagues and a half from Logrosen, on the road of Zalamea: it has been worked.

Another lead mine, a league from Alcocer, in a plain intersected by banks of calcareous stone and slate: it has never been worked.

Blood-stones, near Nabal Villar.

A vein of phosphoric stone, which obliquely crosses the road from north to south, on leaving the village of Logrosen at the foot of the Sierra of Guadalupe: this stone is whitish and tasteless: when pounded and put upon burning coal it takes fire, and gives a blue flame without any smell.

A black earth, upon a very steep mountain, on the road from Alcocer to Nabal Villar; it becomes shining when

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rubbed between the hands. It is a mine of refractory iron from which nothing can be obtained.

Blood-stones upon the same mountain. A mine of iron between Alcocer and Orellona: it is in a sandy stone which contains very fine red ochre.

A blackish mineral, so hard that it strikes fire with the steel. Mr. Bowles considers it as a unfusible iron: it contains a real emery. It is in the mountain of Lares, three miles from the plain that has been mentioned, which is a league from Alcocer. This mountain, upon which the ruins of a fortress of the Moors are still to be seen, is composed of a brown free stone mixed with quartz: this mine was worked by the Moors.

A smooth emery, without grain, near Alcocer; it contains a small quantity of gold; this was likewise worked by the Moors.

Silver Mines upon the mountain to the north of Logrosen, making part of the Sierra of Guadalupe, and upon an eminence called Chantee, towards Zalamea, two leagues from the eminence which has been noticed by the name of Vadija, inclining towards the south. The former is in a whitish stone with a white *mica*. The latter is without lead, in a rock of granite cut against its natural direction; the vein likewise contains spar, quartz, white and yellow pyrites, and a black shining, crumbling, and pyritous matter. This has been worked, but having filled with water it was abandoned; it appears that it would be difficult to dry it.

There is an intermitting fountain a quarter of a league from Acebo, in the diocese of Coria, in the vineyards near a convent of Franciscans; it has no regular periods.

Several of the mountains of Estremadura, particularly that of Guadalupe, are covered with medicinal plants of all kinds. Various animals are to be found on them, that of Guadalupe among others has a good many stags and roebucks.

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There are five principal mineral springs known; four are cold, the fifth is thermal. The first are those of Cheles, nine leagues from Talavera la Real; the Fuente del Carrasco, near the village of Almaharrin, the Fuente de las Aguzaderas, near Zafra, upon the mountain Castellar, and the Fuente de Bernardo Estevand, near Barcarrota, a small town seven leagues from Badajoz, and a quarter of a league out of the road from Xeres de los Cavalleros; this appears to be chalybeate. The last is thermal; it is by the side of the hermitage of St. Bartolomé, near Alange, a town three leagues to the east of Merida. It is very copious and has baths, which were very much frequented in the time of the Romans: the remains of a bason and an oval edifice with four niches and four flights of steps which lead to the bath, are still to be seen.

Arts and Sciences in Estremadura. This is the most neglected and most backward province of Spain in the arts and sciences; it may perhaps in this respect be placed by the side of la Mancha. It has neither schools nor establishments of any kind; the people live in ignorance, particularly of anything relative to these different objects, they have no desire for knowledge; and have no idea of appreciating the works of the fine arts. The inhabitants of this province, fonder of war than sciences, have always disregarded or neglected study; and if any of them have deserved to be greatly distinguished, it is as warriors, and not as learned men. Yet with respect to literature this province has produced some persons who ought to be noticed, for instance, Gaspard de Melo, a theologian, Francisco Carrusco del Suz, a lawyer; the historian Francoz-Iq-dias de Vargas; the metaphysician Juan Pizarro de Arayon, all born at Truxillo; the poet Decianus, the historians Juan-Antonio de Vera y Zuniga and Balthasar Moreno de Vargas, all of Merida; the miscellaneous author Francisco Sanchez de las Brozas; the physician Mateo Fer-

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nandez Bejara, and the painter Christobal Perez Morales, both of Badajoz. At the end of the ninth century this town was the birth-place of the Moor Abu-Mohamed Abdalla, who published the principles of rhetoric. We may also mention an able lawyer of the sixteenth century, Gregorio Lopez, a native of Guadalupe, who has left a commentary on the code of laws of *las siete partidas*, and lastly the comic poet Bartolomé Naharro, a priest, born at Torre.

Character, Manners, Customs, and Habits. The inhabitants of Estremadura live in a country which seems to be insulated from every other, and where opportunities of communicating with the different parts of the Spanish monarchy are not frequent. Hence this province appears to be concentrated in itself, and to think only or its own existence. The people of it neither know the comforts or the conveniences of life, nor the means of procuring them. Little habituated to the world, they dread mixing with it, and avoid society. Hence they appear taciturn, and are perhaps the gravest of all the Spaniards. They fear to be accosted by strangers, shun their company, and take a pleasure in confining themselves all their lives to their own province. A certain distaste for employment and the want of knowledge keep them from work, and make them constantly idle.

They possess in other respects excellent qualities; they are frank, sincere, full of honour and probity, slow in planning enterprises, but firm in their projects and consistent in their notions. They have always been excellent soldiers; they are strong, vigorous, and robust, supporting without murmuring the fatigues and dangers of war; they have always displayed an astonishing courage; they prefer the cavalry to the infantry.

This province has produced several great captains, who did honour to their country by brilliant exploits. It gave birth to the famous Garcias de Paredes, and to several of the con-

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querors of America, Fernando Cortez, Francisco Pizarro, the marquis del Valle de Goanaca, and some other of their companions in arms.

The labourers or workmen of this province are likewise accused of an excessive sloth. The charge appears to be true; but they ought to be treated with indulgence, when it is known that they are necessarily led into the habits of idleness, being in spite of themselves without work, without resource for two-thirds of the year, and without any means of industry to support their existence. Being paid for their work a very moderate price, living in a country where commodities are very dear, and out of their reach, without hope of ameliorating their condition or their lot, they sink into listlessness. If they are observed when they are employed, they will be found, alert, indefatigable, working without relaxation at noon-day, in a burning climate, and under a scorching sun.

No kind of dissipation or pleasures are known in Estremadura, there is no variety, every thing is regular, and melancholy. Persons of high birth, and those who have fortune or are at their ease, seldom associate and that but accidentally.

It is still worse with the common people, they are so poor that they are constantly experiencing deprivations of every kind, and often want the necessaries of life, without looking forward to any favourable change of this pitiable condition. This excess of poverty, which spreads from family to family, oppresses the soul and enervates the body. What a situation to seek for pleasure, and to be able to give oneself up to the gaiety, which attends it?

We find in this province a singular example of what may be called a democratic constitution, which excludes all superiority of men over one another. The inhabitants of the little town of Casar de Caceres, two leagues from Caceres, who are in number about 5000 persons, consider themselves, among each other *all equal* in rank, quality and condition; they

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take the greatest care to prevent this equality ever being altered by any exterior sign of honours or distinction. In short they have carried their vigilance in this respect so far, that, some years ago, they had an inscription which had been placed over the grave of one of their fellow citizens removed, though he was generally esteemed and regretted.

END OF VOLUME I.

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